The Nation.

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The Week.

The National Democrats of Pennsylvania have not proved equal to their opportunity. Their State committee held a meeting at Philadelphia on Thursday, and decided, by a vote of 17 to 10, not to nominate a ticket for the November election. They denounced in vigorous terms the platform adopted by the Bryanized Democracy at their recent State convention, and "deplored its action in again fastening upon the Democratic organization the exploded heresies of Populism, cheap money, and repudiation"—action "especially unwise and unpatriotic at this time, in that it thrusts into the State campaign an issue that should have no place in this contest." But this excellent preamble was followed by the illogical conclusion that it would be "inexpedient" for the Sound-Money Democrats to nominate a ticket of their own, because "the issues in Pennsylvania this fall are local and not national, and offer no fit occasion for the discussion of questions of federal policy." Theoretically, of course, the issues are local in a State election, but the Bryanite Democracy have "thrust into the State campaign" a national issue, and have reaffirmed the Chicago platform as their chief article of faith. No Sound-Money Democrat can vote the Bryan ticket or the Quay ticket, and it is an equally short-sighted and cowardly policy which refuses to nominate candidates worthy of support.

A welcome contrast with this disappointing action on the part of the National Democrats of Pennsylvania is the course adopted by their brethren in Iowa. They have not only nominated a full ticket of first-class candidates, but they have already started a vigorous campaign for it. Headquarters have been opened at Des Moines, and the whole State will be organized with a view to getting out a large vote. Judge Cliggitt, who heads the ticket as candidate for Governor, delivered his first speech at Davenport on Wednesday week, and he will be supported on the stump not only by some of the best political orators in the State, but also by ex-Congressman Bynum of Indiana, chairman of the National Democratic committee, ex-Congressman Patterson of Tennessee, and, it is hoped, in at least one speech, by ex-Secretary Carlisle. This is the sort of spirit that is needed in our politics, and the action of these Sound-Money Democrats of Iowa renders the more pitiable the weakness of the Pennsylvanians.

Although the recent State convention of the Virginia Democrats apparently indicated that Bryanism had swept everything before it in the party, there is evidence of a strong undercurrent of opposition. Gov. O'Ferrall, who refused to support Bryan last year, declares his belief that there are 40,000 Democrats in Virginia who stood with him in this attitude, and says that he is informed that in the recent convention there were many delegates who were anxious to leave out of the platform the national issues which divided the party in the Presidential campaign, but the leaders, "crazed with temporary power," would not consent. For his own part, he announces that he will not support the platform adopted at Roanoke a few weeks ago; nor will he support Bryan in 1900, if nominated on a platform which reaffirms the Chicago declarations of 1896. It requires courage for a Democrat to take such a stand as this in Virginia, but such leadership is inspiring and must rally followers.

Chairman Dingley's newspaper, the Lewiston *Journal*, offers an entirely new explanation of the discriminating duty on foreign goods transported to this country by Canadian railroads—the clause which Speaker Reed says "slipped in." Mr. Dingley's paper says that in the first place certain words were stricken out of the bill by the Senate, and the change thus made imposed a surtax of 10 per cent. on all foreign goods brought into the United States by the ships of foreign countries, unless those countries have treaties with us which would be infringed thereby. After this was done, the Lewiston *Journal* says:

> "The other amendment, it now seems, was adopted by the conferees simply to prevent an evasion of the section by the landing of foreign merchandise in Canada by vessels not entitled to equal privileges in our ports, then shipping it to the United States. It was not intended or understood to affect the bonding privilege under which foreign merchandise can be continuously shipped and forwarded through Canada."

It is somewhat astonishing that this simple explanation should have been so long delayed, and that it should be at variance with all the others that have been offered by the persons most nearly concerned. It is strange, too, that Senator Chandler did not run against it in the course of his investigations. Strangest of all is the story current in Wall Street, during the past month, that the Canadian Pacific Railroad people got wind of this clause before it was put into the bill, and made strenuous efforts at Washington to defeat it, but were unable to do so. If, as the Lewiston *Journal* says, there had been no purpose to abolish the bonding privilege as to goods carried through Canada, it would have been easy to change the wording of the clause so as to preserve that privilege and yet accomplish what Mr. Dingley's paper says was the real object. That real object, by the way, was itself a swindle, being an attempt to reverse the commercial policy of the United States in an important particular surreptitiously, without the knowledge of the country or of Congress itself.

We learn from the office of the Collector of the Port of New York that, in practice, works of art, the production of American artists residing abroad, are free of duty on importation into this country. A misunderstanding has arisen from what the Collector's office admits is the "faulty punctuation" of paragraph 703 of the Dingley bill. That paragraph was apparently intended to be an exact reproduction of paragraph 686 of the Wilson bill; but the introduction of a comma made the phrase "imported expressly for presentation" apply to all the works of art mentioned, instead of simply to "pictorial paintings on glass." Nevertheless, the department has ruled that the same construction is to be put upon the Dingley clause as upon the corresponding Wilson clause. The result is that the "productions of American artists are still admitted free of duty when accompanied by a properly authenticated certificate in conformity with regulations prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury." We take the more pleasure in exposing the erroneous reading of the law, inasmuch as the official interpretation diminishes by so much the iniquity of the Dingley tax on art.

A few days ago, the Treasury published its estimate of the amount and kinds of money circulating in the United States September 1. This estimate showed a heavy increase over this month in 1896—an increase of no less than $126,500,000. But of this increase, $56,000,000 was in gold brought from foreign countries in settlement of last year's heavy exports, and $47,000,000 was in United States notes paid out by reason of the Treasury deficit. Moreover, the total circulation, with all the increase of the year, made poor comparison with other previous years. The Treasury's estimate for the above date reckoned $1,665,680,098 for the aggregate circulating medium; on February 1, 1894, the total amounted to $1,739,783,511. Yet every one remembers what sort of trade activity accompanied the enormous money supply of 1894. The simple truth of the matter is that our heavy trade, during the current year, has supplied through the normal channels

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of exchange its own requisite circulating medium. If the supply were now deficient, we should witness enormous receipts of gold from Europe, such as the $175,000,000 net importations of 1879, 1880, and 1881. On the other hand, the large supply in 1894, instead of stimulating trade, suppressed and paralyzed it; the avenues of circulation were choked; there was an overflow, of course, and the overflow involved a net shipment of $108,000,000 of gold to Europe in the next two years. There is no more perfect demonstration in commercial history of the fact that abundant money supply cannot create prosperity, but that, on the contrary, prosperity commands sufficient circulating medium from the world's reserves.

The notice given by the Secretary of State for India that the sale of bills of exchange on Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras will be suspended for not less than ten weeks, is not calculated to make Senator Wolcott's smile more cheerful. The action taken is, perhaps, sufficiently explained by the fact that "war, pestilence, and famine" have exhausted the Indian treasury, so that it has nothing to draw against. Nevertheless, the suspension of the issue of bills will tend to raise the rate of exchange and to increase the value of the rupee, which may not improbably attain to "parity," that is, 16d. This would establish the gold standard temporarily if not permanently. The prospect of opening the Indian mints to the free coinage of silver is, at all events, not improved by the present action of the Government. Something was to be done for silver in October; so much our silver embassy had secured. But ten weeks carries us beyond October, and the price of silver is falling every day. If anything is to be done for it, 'twere well 'twere done quickly. The task of reëstablishing bimetallism is far more difficult than it has ever been before.

Although the Gallingers of the Senate and the Grosvenors of the House continue to rail against the merit system and to threaten its overthrow, it is clear enough that they will get precious little support. The reply of Gallinger's colleague to a question as to the attitude of the Republican party toward civil-service reform shows the hopelessness of any attempt to undo what has been done. Mr. Chandler says that "of course a civil-service system is a part of the principles of the party," and "should be loyally supported by all Republicans," but that there is a question as to what is a "fair and just" system. For his own part, he believes in the existing system as regards all clerical employees, but would not extend it downward to the lowest workman or upward so far as to include many high officials now covered by it; but he admits that "much controversy might arise over these reservations," and he is too busy discussing other questions to bother over this one. The New Hampshire Senator has here given away the whole case of the spoilsmen. Congress could never formulate a law specifying what employees should be in the classified service and what out of it; and, in the absence of such action by the legislative department, the question must be settled by the executive—as it has been. What Arthur and Cleveland and Harrison and Cleveland again and McKinley have thus done by executive order will stand.

The Populists have been making a "howl" against injunctions, and demanding that the practice of granting them shall be stopped. But the Kansas members of that party have found that recourse to an injunction was the only means of speedily ending what they considered an abuse, and they have consequently applied for one without exhibiting the slightest sense of shame. The railroads recently changed their rates for transporting cattle, putting out a new tariff which charged by the pound instead of by the carload, with the result of making the shippers pay considerably more than before. The change was made just when shipments were becoming heaviest, and the effect of the new schedule in a short time would be great. The Railroad Commissioners undid the work of the railroads, or assumed to do so, for it is a disputed point whether the board has the power to make rates. The railroads proposed to fight the issue out in the courts, and in the meanwhile charge the higher tariff. If the Populists had lived up to their principles on the subject of injunctions, weeks would have passed before the matter would have been settled, or a special session of the Legislature might have needed to be called. But they summarily abandoned their old position, applied to a county judge for an injunction, which was granted, and are now "pointing with pride" to the service which they have rendered the people by repudiating their own platform.

Another Legislature has passed an act which proves to be null and void, and which any reasonably intelligent lawmaker ought to have found out must be such. The last body which assembled at the capital of Iowa passed a bill that imposed a tax upon the premium income of European insurance companies greater than the tax imposed upon the premium income of American companies. The obvious duty of the committee to which this proposition was referred was to make an investigation, and discover whether or not there are any agreements between the United States and European nations which would render an attempt at such discrimination nugatory. Inquiry would have shown that there are treaties which have precisely this effect, but apparently none of the Iowa legislators took the trouble to look the matter up. The result is that the Minister of Switzerland at Washington has called the attention of the Secretary of State to the fact that the Iowa statute would operate to the disadvantage of Swiss insurance companies doing business in that State, and that such discrimination is forbidden by an article of the Treaty of 1850 between the United States and Switzerland, which provides that "no higher impost, under whatever name, shall be exacted from the citizens of one of the two countries residing or established in the other country in which they reside, nor any contribution whatever to which the latter shall not be liable." Secretary Sherman in turn calls the attention of the Governor of Iowa to this provision, and the legislators are thus notified of the failure of their scheme.

The usual attempt on the part of the State Tax Commissioners to make the city of New York pay a greater share of the State taxes than the city assessments justify, has this year been resisted with rather unusual spirit. Mr. Heermance, one of the State Tax Commissioners, announced that the people "up the State" did not think that New York was taxed enough, and he proposed to "equalize" things by raising the valuations here. The city Tax Commissioners, however, showed pretty clearly that valuations here ought not to be raised. It was formerly the tradition that real property here was to be assessed at two-thirds of its market value. Recently, however, assessments have been raised and taxes increased, while much property has during the hard times been less productive of rent than formerly. It is probable that real estate is now assessed more nearly at its actual value, measured by its revenue-producing power, than ever before. Very competent experts were produced who testified emphatically that Mr. Heermance's claim that New York city assessments were too low was untrue. Against this evidence Mr. Heermance had nothing to offer except current reports and general impressions. What should be established to prove his claim is that country assessments are higher than those of the city. As President Barker of the city Tax Commission says, the contrary is notoriously true. The truth is, that it is excessively difficult to assess property fairly, and even more so to equalize unfair assessments on the scale undertaken by the State Tax Commission. The best solution of the difficulty would seem to be to levy State taxes on municipal incomes. It is possible to ascertain very nearly the revenue of every town and city, and a State tax proportioned to

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this revenue would be as equitable as any tax can be.

The most noteworthy feature of the outbreak of yellow fever at Ocean Springs, Miss., one of the summer resorts on the Gulf Coast, is the slight disturbance of the public mind which such an announcement now causes, compared with the wild dismay that was produced by news of this sort until comparatively recent times. The measures which are nowadays taken to prevent the spread of the disease, under a quarantine system which is more efficient than ever before, reduce to a minimum the danger of its cutting a wide swath, and, in connection with the advance of medical science in treating the epidemic, render impossible such frightful experiences as the country had a century ago. The story of the yellow fever epidemic of 1793 in Philadelphia, then the political and commercial metropolis of the nation, seems almost incredible. The disease appeared about the middle of August, and soon half of all the houses were deserted, while a full fifth of the 20,000 inhabitants who remained, mostly because of their poverty, died, whole families being swept away. Banks, business houses, and even churches closed their doors, and "the grass grew waist-high in the streets."

The report of the legal adviser of the Spanish Government in this country on the subject of our relations with Cuba should be studied by all members of Congress. According to this report, our laws are sufficient to enable our Government to come up to the full measure of international duty which it required of Great Britain. That seems a rather uncomfortable reminder of the *Alabama* affair. The report continues to the effect that the recognition of Cuban belligerency would materially increase our responsibility for the damage that might result from any filibustering expeditions originating here. It is added that, while citizens of the United States may sell munitions of war to whomsoever they please, any attempt to transport such goods to the Cuban insurgents constitutes an illegal military enterprise which it is the duty of our Government to suppress. There is nothing in this report which members of Congress ought not to know already, and the sincere sympathizers with the Cuban insurgents should inform the public just what lawful steps they are prepared to take. They cannot properly ask their fellow-citizens to support measures which will greatly increase our responsibilities without helping the Cuban cause a particle.

The news from Hawaii indicates that the annexation faction is much perturbed. Minister Hatch brought information from the United States which caused the Government to call at once an extra session of the Senate. It is supposed that this extra session is called for the purpose of ratifying the treaty of annexation, and it certainly looks as if no time should be lost. There are reports of a grand anti-annexation mass-meeting of natives, to be held on the arrival of Senators Morgan and Quay, and such a demonstration might be extremely awkward. The Americans numbering only 3 or 4 per cent. of the population, they would find it embarrassing to insist on annexation in fact of the declared opposition of the mass of the population. These miserable natives are to be marshalled by the "money-power," personified in Claus Spreckels, to the number of fifteen or twenty thousand, to protest publicly against annexation, and to send a monster petition to the United States. The degraded creatures will allow themselves to be used in this way because they will look on the mass-meeting as a "picnic," and for the further reason that they do not want to be annexed. But if the treaty is once ratified by the Senate of Hawaii, the protest of the natives could be disregarded. They could be told that their Government had made an irrevocable decision, and that there was nothing to do but submit. Yet we should be pleased to have the projected mass-meeting take place, even after the annexationists have ratified their treaty. Mr. Spreckels's motives may not be altruistic, but his "picnic" would be on many accounts an impressive event.

The great strike of the workmen in Lord Penrhyn's quarries in Wales has ended. How it has ended is something about which different assertions have been made. According to the Radical journals the men have won a complete victory. According to other, and apparently more accurate authorities, Lord Penrhyn has carried his point. At all events, the evidence now at hand, in the shape of the agreement of settlement, shows that the terms are almost identical with those offered by Lord Penrhyn last May and then refused by the quarrymen. They stood out, not for the right to combine, which was not denied them, but for the principle that a permanent body should be chosen to represent the workmen, and that the claims of individuals should be presented or not, according to the decision of this body. This principle Lord Penrhyn, acting, in our view, in the interest of the liberty of his men, refused to acknowledge, and he has made no change in his position. He is willing, as he was before, to have the managers of the works receive deputations representing the whole body of workmen, or deputations representing any class of them, or aggrieved individuals, and to allow appeals to himself from the decisions of the managers. These conditions were rejected by the men last May, but the conditions now accepted by them are different only in trifling details. What concession they have now obtained they might have obtained in May, or, for that matter, in September of last year, when the strike began.

The real question was the same as that raised in this country when the Knights of Labor first took the field. The Welsh strikers contended that Lord Penrhyn must treat them, not as individual men, but as a body politic speaking only through its constituted government. It is very well known that industrial operations cannot be successfully carried on where this system prevails. If the employer is responsible for the business, he must be free to discharge such employees as he finds incompetent or untrustworthy. Lord Penrhyn did not refuse to listen to complaints or to hear appeals, but he would not consent that a general committee of workmen should have the sole power to determine what his relations with his workmen should be. It is true that such a committee formerly existed, but when the present Lord Penrhyn undertook the management of the quarries he curbed its pretensions, and it was their renewal that brought on the strike. The present settlement appears to be perfectly reasonable. The men can combine as they please, and complain if they choose through the officers of their combinations. But men who prefer not to submit to the tyranny of trade unions are guaranteed protection, and need not depend upon the good graces of an arbitrary standing committee for the maintenance of their rights.

Russia may have meant her use of the word "alliance," at the meeting of Czar and President, to be taken in a Platonic and Pickwickian sense, but evidently France does not. The populace flamed with enthusiasm, with visions of revenge on Germany, the instant the telegraph announced that the sacred word "alliance" had been articulated; and the enthusiasm seems to have carried away the Prime Minister. Unless very sure of his position and certain of Russian approval, M. Méline has been guilty of a blazing indiscretion in the despatch he sent to residents of Lorraine, congratulating them on their glowing patriotism. Whatever their sentiments, they are in fact German subjects, and for the Prime Minister of France to encourage them in what is, practically and legally, a treasonable demonstration, is a serious business. Out of France, no one is likely to believe that the Czar, who gives frequent evidence of possessing a level head, committed himself to the support of France in a war expressly for the recovery of her lost provinces,

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BETTER RAILROAD PROSPECTS.

It is twenty-five years and more since a number of Western States, in obedience to the popular demand, which came to be called the Granger movement, undertook to regulate, fix, and limit by statute the charges of railroad companies for the transportation of freight and passengers. Without attempting to rehearse a legal controversy long ago settled, it is enough to recall the fact that the right of the States to assume this function was stoutly contested by the railroads, as in violation of their chartered property rights, guaranteed under State or federal Constitution, that the battle was lost, and that a railroad era of unparalleled disaster opened.

All railroad managers and all owners of railway property foresaw trouble, for the decision of the Supreme Court in the case of Munn vs. Illinois was virtually an announcement that legislative bodies in whom no one had much confidence would have a controlling voice in determining what this form of property should yield to its owners; and though, as time went on, qualifications were introduced into this doctrine which robbed it of some of its terrors, the mere spectacle of roads constantly in litigation over the right to their earnings was not calculated to make people hopeful of the future, especially as the introduction of the new system was accompanied by loud denunciation of the owners of railway shares and bonds as extortioners and monopolists, who might be thankful if the public allowed them to get any income from their property at all.

But many other causes contributed to the depression. To say nothing of the frightful conflagrations which wrecked Boston and Chicago, or of the panic of 1873, or the currency troubles, we were then at the beginning of a period of continued and increasing agricultural depression that was to send down the prices of the great products on which the prosperity of the transportation system depends, and make the income derived from the service lower and lower. To cap the climax, so little were the conditions which the country was to be called upon to face understood that new railroad construction began in 1879 with great fury, new unproductive areas being continually added to existing properties, already overburdened with debt. The "boom" which came after the resumption of specie payments in that year, and when the effects of the panic of 1873 had died away, revived for a time the hopes of investors, but the temptation to expand the railway system resulted in gigantic speculation, and a depression set in which carried railway earnings down to a point hitherto undreamed of, and made investors wonder whether the time would not come when railway stocks would be absolutely worthless. Their alarm was heightened, too, by the increasing complexities of railway receiverships, foreclosures, and reorganizations—once, in the days of single short lines, simple enough, but now, in a period of "systems," leases, guarantees, debentures, and superimposed strata of mortgages, fairly baffling to the comprehension of the wayfaring man, who has a not unnatural suspicion of management under which there are steady declines, no gains, and occasionally a total loss. This era in the development of railway property came to a climax in the panic of 1893; the subsequent collapse, which reached its lowest point during the last Presidential campaign, left owners of railway property in a situation in which there seemed to be really little to fear or to hope.

When we consider that twenty-five years ago American railway stocks were considered all over the world as almost certain wealth, and that even fifteen years ago first-mortgage railway bonds considered perfectly secure, and yielding 6 per cent., were constantly to be had at par, the change to which, a few months since, we were trying to accustom ourselves, was certainly overwhelming, especially when we consider that it affected some eleven thousand millions of property, most of it owned by people dependent on the income for their support. And the case seemed to be really without remedy, for the only cure ever suggested to the unhappy investor under such circumstances is to sell out and invest in "bond and mortgage," a form of investment in which there is never any increase of capital, and always a decline in interest after a certain number of years.

And yet it is easy enough to see now that the end was near at hand and certain to come very soon. Railroad expansion had stopped, the agricultural depression had shown clear signs of coming to an end, the reorganizations were over, the effects of the panic of 1893 had worn off, and the long line of decisions, beginning with Munn vs. Illinois, had produced a theory of public railroad regulation under which the limits of State interference were seriously restricted; more than all, the constant decline in the rate of interest had reached a point at which it had become possible for railroads to reduce materially their fixed charges once for all, and in this work they were busily engaged.

It is now pretty generally admitted that the railway metamorphosis which has been such a weary and heart-breaking process, has brought a new day for the investor. There does not seem to be any doubt that, in the fulness of time, the era brought in by the Granger laws has ended and a new epoch begun. One reason for thinking so is that, with a total change in the conditions affecting the whole railway world, a repetition of what we have gone through is practically inconceivable. Assuming that other things remain as now, it requires neither a prophet nor the son of a prophet to see that it would be rather surprising if railway property did not regain once more something of its old status, and that the day might come again when it would be considered, as it was for so many years, a specially valuable form of investment.

In one respect it has an advantage which, twenty-five years ago, it would have seemed madness to hope for. Its management has become practically public. This great good the Granger movement did help to produce. There is no longer any secrecy left such as once surrounded railway property and earnings and accounts, and rendered possible the gigantic frauds of a generation since. Railroad accounts are not yet what bank accounts are, but they convey at least sufficient information to put the prudent man on his guard. A generation ago railroad dishonesty was a by-word. If this is not true to-day, it is mainly to the new system of publicity that we owe the change. As for ourselves, optimistic it may be, but we firmly believe that we stand on the threshold of a new railway period, full of wonders to be accomplished as great as any that have yet been seen, of returns on capital once more decent, and of prosperity far more secure than ever before, because based upon the lasting foundations of veracity, publicity, and low fixed charges.

MR. LOW'S CANDIDACY.

The experiment which is to be made in this city during the next two months is in many respects without a parallel in the political history of the country. It is something of far greater importance than even the election of a government for a new city of three millions of people, momentous as that alone would be. Mr. Low, in the brief statement in which he accepted the Citizens' Union nomination, said that he regarded the petition of over 100,000 voters as so imperative a mandate from the people that, as a patriot, he could not refuse to obey it unless he was prepared to discourage, even in local matters, all spontaneous movement by the people outside the limitations of party. He added that what had moved the people to this unprecedented expression was a desire to have the new city begin its career under officials who would make the welfare of the city, not the welfare of any party, their first concern. He thus touched upon the two aspects of his candidacy which constitute its great significance. He will stand more exclusively on the platform of non-partisan city government than any mayoralty candidate the city has ever had heretofore, and he will stand as a candidate of the people, rather than of the nominating machinery of any poli-

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tical party. In fact, the people have been so earnest in their desire for good government that they have taken the nominating power away from the political parties and exercised it themselves.

The politicians have been very slow to realize the new order of things. They could not imagine the nomination of an anti-Tammany candidate on any other plan than the familiar one of agreement among all the opposing political forces. They were willing that the reformers should start the movement, and give it its moral tone, but were astonished and enraged when, for the first time in the history of the city, their offer to come in and take possession of it was denied. They resorted in vain to all the old methods of carrying their point —ridicule, abuse, threats. The reformers laid the matter, for the first time, before the people, and got a verdict of approval so overwhelming as to amount to a repudiation of the regular nominating machinery. The spontaneous and eager response showed unmistakably, in fact, that the Citizens' Union was the natural outcome of a great popular disgust with existing political methods, and of a general popular conviction that the regular nominating machinery could not be trusted to select for public office the kind of men the people desired. While starting out with the object of obtaining honest municipal government, the Citizens' Union, by its wise and courageous course, has raised a no less momentous issue in the preservation or destruction of the boss nominating system.

What Mr. Low will stand for concerns not New York city alone. If the demonstration can be made in New York that a majority of the voters will improve an opportunity to elect a man simply because he is an expert in government and is pledged to devote his abilities and energies to the welfare of the city, and not to the welfare of any party, there is not a city in the land which will not be encouraged to follow the example set by New York. If it shall be shown that the regular party nominating machinery can be defied, and that the people will themselves exercise the right of nominating, then boss government everywhere is doomed. The boss must exercise this power absolutely, or his reign will come to an end. If he cannot in person name all the candidates, his system will break down. Nothing has been more instructive or more amusing in the controversy between the Citizens' Union and the Platt Republican machine than the claims of the latter to a sort of divine right to nominate. Awful things were to happen if this right were to be denied. The election of the best Mayor was a trifling thing compared with the impairment of it. To deny it as supreme was to so humiliate and outrage its possessors as to justify them in turning the city over to Tammany Hall or any other gang of looters. One of its defenders went so far as to say that "the Republican party cannot afford in the city of New York or elsewhere at any time to become the prey of highwaymen," the allusion being to the proposal that the Republican organization should acquiesce in Mr. Low's nomination on the petition of 127,000 citizens. For the people to assert their right to nominate a candidate was "flat burglary as ever was committed," in the eyes of this political Dogberry.

Nevertheless, from this time forward the only question before the Republican politicians will be: "Are you in favor of Tammany rule or non-partisan rule?" There is no possible middle ground. The method of Mr. Low's nomination, combined with his personal character and expert fitness for the office, makes it impossible for the Republican machine to refuse to support him on any other ground than that it is not in favor of the honest government of the city. If it opposes Mr. Low and puts a "straight ticket" in the field, it will array itself openly on the side of Tammany. As the *Tribune*, speaking for Republicans, said with courage and force on Thursday last, whoever advises or demands a policy that ends in the election of a Tammany Democrat "will be held not only an enemy to honest municipal government, but the worst of enemies to the Republican party." On the other hand, it is conceded on all sides that Mr. Low's candidacy has compelled the selection of the best man attainable as his Democratic opponent. It has also raised the qualifications considered necessary for all candidates for subordinate positions on the tickets of both parties. Even the most reckless political managers realize that the people are going to be exacting in their demands this year. Contrast this situation with what would have been the case had the two regular party machines been left alone to select the opposing tickets. Instead of the best material attainable, we should have had on both sides just as poor material as could be submitted to the people without danger of revolt. Whatever the result in November, the city will have a better government than would have been possible of attainment had not the Citizens' Union been formed. Instead of being shut up to a choice between sets of more or less unfit candidates, the voters will have an opportunity to elect the best or the next best, as shall suit their pleasure.

PARDONS AND LYNCH LAW.

The judicial department of the government in many States is justly criticised for its dilatory and lax administration of the laws against crimes, and the courts are held in part to blame for the prevalence of lynching in those States. In some cases the legislative branch is responsible for neglect to make necessary changes in the laws to secure greater promptness of action and less regard for technicalities by the courts. The executive department has also its burden of shame to bear for lessening popular confidence in the regular administration of justice by its disposition to remit penalties rightly imposed by the courts.

In commenting upon the action of President McKinley in pardoning, a few weeks ago, the cashier of the Ellsworth (Me.) National Bank, who was sentenced to ten years' imprisonment, before he had served four years, the Lewiston *Journal* expressed the opinion that "the courts do not forget their function of punishing for the protection of the properties and lives of the people, but their work is now nullified to a large extent by executive volition." As regards the federal judiciary, this remark is true in the broadest sense. A case is almost never reported where a United States court lends favor to mere technicalities as a bar to punishment, or fails to impose a severe sentence upon conviction. State courts are more open to criticism in both respects, particularly the former, and yet some of the most flagrant decisions on technical grounds in favor of criminals who had been justly convicted appear to be demanded by laws which the courts cannot disregard, however unfair the judges may consider them. On the other hand, a President may largely undo the work of the courts by an unjust use of the pardoning power, as when Mr. McKinley, a few weeks ago, released almost simultaneously three bank defaulters, in New York, Maine, and Arkansas, who had served but a small part of the time for which they had been sentenced.

The pardon of the Chicago anarchists by Gov. Altgeld of Illinois four years ago was only the first and most flagrant in a long series of acts by that Executive which encouraged the criminal classes and disheartened the law-abiding. Too many other Governors err in the same way. Gov. Jones of Arkansas was inaugurated on the 18th of January last, and during the first seven months of his administration he issued 175 pardons—an average of one a day, leaving Sundays out of the account. Gov. Bradley of Kentucky has a still worse record. He assumed office on the 10th of December, 1895, and by the end of June, 1897—a period of one year, eight months, and twenty-one days—he had pardoned or commuted the sentences of 675 convicts. Three murderers, who the courts decreed should be executed, had their sentences commuted to life imprisonment; 32 murderers who had been sentenced for life, were released after serving an average of only eight years apiece; and 64 who had "killed their men" and been convicted of manslaughter, were set free. Among these last,

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one sentenced for twenty years served only nine; one for twenty-one, but four; one for seventeen, only three. The average sentence of the 64 had been eight years, but they were released after serving on the average only three years.

In some States the securing of pardons has become a regular business, which lawyers make a profitable specialty. At the capital of Kansas, for example, are lawyers who watch the prison records, and whenever a man with property of his own or with wealthy friends is convicted, they at once set about negotiating his release for a given fee, finding the task usually easy after the excitement attending the criminal's trial has died away. Petitions are circulated, the judge and jury who convicted him and the attorney who prosecuted him are enlisted, and public sentiment is manufactured in his favor. Touching pleas from the wife, sister, or daughter are addressed to the Board of Pardons, and if a favorable recommendation is secured from that body, the assault is renewed upon the Governor, who is very apt to yield if he is a tender-hearted man, like the last Executive, Gov. Morrill.

But while the blame rests in the last analysis upon the Governor who surrenders when he ought to resist, the responsibility is shared by others. An inspection of the records of the Kansas Board of Pardons shows that, in a large majority of the applications presented, the judge and jury who tried the prisoner unite in asking for commutation or full pardon. Dozens of district judges are now sitting in Kansas who have documents on file in the Pardon Board office which are nothing less than a confession of their own unfairness and incapacity, while it is a common thing to find a paper signed by all the jurymen in which they declare that they erred in finding the prisoner guilty.

The general public is no less remiss in its duty to stand by the courts. A journal published at the capital of Mississippi says that a great many of the country papers which find their way to its office "contain petitions for the pardon of Tom, Dick, or Harry—some white, others colored—who have been sent to the State prison for this, that, and the other offence, murder, burglary, forgery, etc." An Iowa newspaper a few weeks ago told how a citizen of that State went to the executive office to make complaint because a certain criminal had been let out of prison; and when the Governor sent for the papers in the case, he found the signature of his caller to the petition for the man's release.

There is not a particle of doubt that the frequency of pardon is one of the causes of lynch law. People see that, even if the courts convict a criminal, the Governor is liable to release him in a little while, and this added risk of his escaping all but a slight punishment strengthens the disposition to visit swift and terrible vengeance upon a villain who falls into the hands of a mob. The soft-hearted Executive who has yielded to appeals for mercy which was not deserved, has by that act weakened the assurance which should be enjoyed by every man suspected of crime that he shall have a fair trial. There must be a toning up of public sentiment in this matter from top to bottom. Presidents and Governors must be held to stricter account; judges, prosecuting attorneys, and jurors must be made to feel that it is their duty to stand by their work, instead of trying to undermine it. Above all, the individual citizen must realize that he has a duty in this matter, and that it is a grave offence for him to ask clemency for a man justly convicted and sentenced.

ARCHITECTS' COMPETITIONS.

Every great reform has in it the seed of others. It expresses a principle which is soon discovered to have manifold applications. The fact that the reform is accomplished shows that the public has been awakened to its importance, and, being once aroused, the public observes that other reforms may be consistently demanded. Something like this process is now going on in the case of the construction of great public buildings. Formerly the construction of these buildings was often committed to such architects as had most political influence. As in other appointments to office under our government, favor, not fitness, determined success. But as the principle of fitness has gradually been recognized in selecting most of the public servants, it has become apparent that the selection of architects must be made on different principles from those which have heretofore prevailed.

Two circumstances have tended to produce this conviction. The first is the fact that the private work of our architects has so greatly improved in beauty since 1876 as to make our public buildings generally conspicuous by their ugliness. The people are indifferent to the fact that these buildings involve "jobs," but they now cry out if the results are æsthetically bad. Very few people can tell why one building is beautiful and another ugly, but it is undeniable that people whose eyes have become accustomed to resting on beautiful buildings are unpleasantly affected when they turn to bad ones. In this way there comes to be a certain education of the public taste, and a public opinion is gradually created in favor of better public architecture. Many of our politicians also have seen the great works in the older countries, and are not unwilling to have it appear that we can outdo foreigners in architecture as well as in other things.

A second circumstance affecting the result is the increased prevalence of the notion that public officers are trustees. When such officers now attempt to distribute patronage arbitrarily, they encounter violent opposition. If they choose inferior architects, these architects do not gain but lose standing in their profession. The pressure thus becomes very strong on the authorities having the construction of a public building in charge to select a competent architect, and these authorities, as has been found to be the case under the civil-service reform acts, are frequently glad to be relieved from party "pulls" and importunities by resorting to a competition of architects. The most recent illustration of this tendency is the decision of Secretary Gage to obtain a supervising architect of the Treasury by competitive examination. He does not himself attempt to judge of the merits of the competitors—that is committed to a board of architects eminent in their profession; and should they agree in their decision, it is probable that it will be final. The scheme seems to be as nearly perfect in its theory as anything that is at present practicable.

In the matter of selecting the architect for a particular building, the most scientific plan that has fallen under our observation is that devised by Prof. Laird of the University of Pennsylvania in connection with the construction of the new State buildings at Harrisburg. The Legislature, as was necessary, appointed a commission to have the general oversight of the business, consisting of the Governor, the Treasurer, the Auditor-General, the President of the Senate, and the Speaker of the House of Representatives. This Commission selected of their own notion six architects, and invited them to prepare plans, agreeing to pay them as compensation $1,000 each. They also invited "all American architects of good standing" to submit plans, promising them that all drawings presented by them should be fairly considered. They then constituted a board of experts, as Secretary Gage has done, consisting of Prof. Laird, as the professional adviser of the Commission, and two architects in active practice, each of whom must have had the responsible direction, as principal, of work of importance at least equal to that of the proposed building. One of these two experts was to be nominated by a majority of the six architects invited to compete, and the other was to be chosen by him and the professional adviser. The decision of a majority of the board of experts so constituted was to be final. All the plans, including those of the six chosen architects, were to be submitted without the disclosure of the names of their authors, and very great precautions were taken to secure freedom from personal influence in all the details of the competition. It is,

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of course, conceivable that a dishonorable man might become a member of the board, and that a dishonest architect might let it be known which plan was his; but this is only to say that human nature is imperfect. So far as fairness can be promoted by intelligent regulations, it is attained by these.

Out of all the designs submitted, the board of experts was to select eight, giving them rank in the order of their merit. From these eight the commission was then to select one, designating it as their first choice, and the author of this plan was to be appointed their architect. Two other designs were to be specially honored, in accordance with the rank assigned them by the experts. If the commission should consider that by reason of youth or inexperience, or for any other reason, their architect was not a suitable person to be put in charge of the work, he was to associate with him some acceptable architect. There were many other details of importance provided for in Prof. Laird's plan, but these which we have stated are the essential ones, and we should not be surprised if they became eventually the standard requirements in such competitions. In this particular case the requirements of the Commission were apparently greater than could be secured for $550,000, the sum appropriated by the Legislature, and it is apprehended that the whole competition may fail on this account. While this would be a regrettable incident, it would involve no reflection on the merits of the competitive scheme.

In a competition of this kind the conditions are such as to be reasonably satisfactory to architects of eminence, and reasonably fair to ambitious men who have their reputations to make. Some of the former class will probably be included in the list of those compensated for their plans; any of the latter class may enter the competition on the same terms as the former, with the exception that they receive no compensation unless they are successful. Were the public officers disposed to favor their friends by nominating them for the competition, they could indeed insure them compensation, but it would be out of their power to award them the prize except with the concurrence of the board of experts. It is conceivable that a commission composed of corrupt politicians might appoint a corrupt professional adviser and select a list of corrupt architects, and that a corrupt board of experts might thus be constituted. Of course if corruption prevails to such an extent, all measures of precaution are futile. But, bad as things are, they are probably not so bad as that, and no scheme has yet been devised so well adapted as Prof. Laird's to make political influence unavailing, to attract architects of distinction, and to give a fighting chance to men of ability by whom distinction has yet to be won.

GLIMPSES OF SOUTHERN OREGON.—I.

MARSHFIELD, August, 1897.

The State of Oregon is divided topographically and climatologically by the Cascade Mountains, which extend a little to the west of the middle of the State, from Mount Hood on the north to Mount Pitt on the south. Eastward from these are more or less arid plains of sand, and scattered volcanic elevations from which the sand is derived. Extremely fertile where water can be had, this part of Oregon offers few attractions elsewhere. The parching winds which sometimes cook the fruit on the trees of Californian orchards, owe their heat and dryness to a passage over this area.

Parallel with the Cascades along the seacoast lies the lower belt of the Coast Range of Oregon. Between the two is the Willamette valley, the garden of the State. Toward the southern boundary the two ranges converge and are practically united by the Klamath Mountains, an ancient island of crystalline rocks which stretches in an easterly and westerly direction from the northern end of the Sierras to the sea. These include the Siskiyous, Rogue River Mountains, and other subordinate ranges, and separate, topographically, northern California from southern Oregon. The moisture-laden winds from the Pacific drop their rain abundantly upon the coast, and are responsible for the deep blue patch familiar to students of meteorology, which indicates on maps of rainfall, near the mouth of the Columbia, the most rainy district of the United States. To the eastward of the Coast Range sufficient moisture passes to supply in generous measure the harvests of the Willamette valley, but the Cascades intercept nearly all that is left. As one travels southward from Portland on the railway, the valley narrows and is divided by wooded spurs from the ranges on either side and from the south. Beyond Eugene, where the State University is situated, the road winds gently between wooded hills with picturesque glimpses of narrow lateral valleys, nearly all of which are occupied by farms and orchards. In the vicinity of Comstock the road leaves the Willamette drainage and enters that of the Umpqua, which cuts directly through the Coast Range to the Pacific.

Here is a region which less than half a century ago was an unbroken wilderness, whose annals offer to the historian nothing striking or romantic, and which the uncommercial traveller knows only as a given area on the map. Owing to its broken topography of hill and dale, abruptly alternating, it can never become a densely populated region, but the fertility of the narrow strips along the streams has attracted settlers, and there is hardly a tillable area of a few acres but has its cabin. The necessarily elongated farms separate the dwellings rather widely. The towns are few and small. The farmers of this region share with those of California the convenience of a dry harvest. July, August, and September are usually rainless. The sun pours down its rays with ardency; the lips dry and crack, the dry air does away with visible perspiration, and, in spite of the noon temperatures hovering in the vicinity of 90 to 100 degrees F., the heat is stimulating rather than oppressive. Dust, of course, is ever present. The roads are usually poor, formed, on the hillsides, of the surface soil, with an occasional sprinkling of rounded river-gravel, which does not pack. The rocks are mostly friable sandstones and shales, or an exceedingly refractory diabase, and do not afford good road-metal. A further explanation of the wretched highways is afforded by the fact that the farmer gets all his heavy hauling done just after harvest, while the roads are still sunbaked, and in the rainy season, when they are mostly quagmires, he has nothing to haul; or, if he has, betakes himself to a broad-runnered wooden sledge, which slides over the mud almost as easily as if it were snow. As the day wanes, a haze overspreads the sky, the remnant of the coast fogs brought by the persistent trade-wind. After nightfall the air becomes cool, and, with one's window up, a refreshing sleep may be enjoyed under two heavy blankets. The rainy season, by all accounts, is trying to those unused to isolation and intellectual torpor. For reasons above indicated there can be but a minimum of moving about on the country roads and little sociality. Those in more easy circumstances go to the towns; the others exist until the seed-time comes.

The conditions foster lethargy of mind. The village papers have mostly "patent outsides" and a vacuous interior. At the stationer's, in one of the larger towns, I was informed that they did not take in a single weekly illustrated paper or any monthly magazine. Those who wished such things got them from the train boy of the daily local. In two weeks I did not see him sell anything except a few daily papers, when, following the usage, I went to get a paper for myself. The schoolhouses, scattered at intervals along the hill-roads, were small, untidy, and unpainted. I heard from residents repeated criticism of the poor work done by the State Normal Schools, which were said to graduate immature, incompetent, and untrained teachers, each provided with a diploma which exempted the bearer from further examinations. On the other hand, the extremely meagre pay given to the district-school-teachers could hardly attract competent persons to the work. It is probable, also, that politics plays some part in appointments. However, the criticism heard is a more favorable symptom than content with an unsatisfactory state of affairs would be. The higher educators are not indifferent to the lack of culture, and earnest efforts in the direction of "university extension" are being made.

The mental torpor referred to is quite a different thing from stupidity. In conversation with the people I found no lack of intelligence, and was surprised to discover how generally sound views on the currency and other analogous topics were entertained. The women, as usual, were more alert in such matters than the men, and, even under disadvantageous circumstances, showed praiseworthy strivings for thrift, neatness, and other than domestic interests. The physique of both sexes seemed good, and attractive faces were not rare. There was apparently some tendency to pallor, and a physician of long experience in the region assured me that, though the country is exceptionally healthful, the people lacked physical tone and succumbed with astonishing ease to relatively slight attacks of disease. Searching for some explanation of this singular fact, I learned that the settlers, though more

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or less mixed with European stock, are derived mainly from immigrants from Missouri, Tennessee, and Virginia, where malarial conditions may have undermined the constitutions of the progenitors of the present population. Much weight must be allowed, I am convinced, to the unhygienic cuisine which is nearly universal, and always comprises an excess of fatty, sweet, and acid constituents, badly cooked and hurriedly consumed. There is no doubt that this part of the country is sadly in need of missionaries capable of teaching better domestic economy and methods of thrift.

The products of the region are the staples, wheat, hops, prunes, and beef cattle; while timber, staves, and poultry contribute a not unimportant share. The high price of wheat has recently greatly encouraged the farmers, and will bring much money into the valleys. In general, I was informed, the farms are free from encumbrance, and the people have been, in spite of the hard times, fairly prosperous. The transportation of the region is wholly in the hands of a single railway and the rates are high. The coast may be reached by several stage lines, one of which starts west from Roseburg for the Coos Bay country, while another, over a better road, crosses the mountains by a moderate divide, and descends the valley of the Umpqua. The ride by the latter is picturesque and interesting, and, with a comfortable coach (which is not provided), might be recommended to tourists. As it is, however, the hotels in most cases are far from meeting the most elementary requirements of cleanliness and good food, while the stages are merely rough covered wagons, with hard seats and insufficient springs. The omnipresent dust is a factor not to be ignored.

After crossing the coast range, where the road winds slowly upward between forests of tall and stately fir, the traveller descends into a valley much like that from which he came, but diversified by the meanderings of the river over wide beds of nearly level rock, with deep pools here and there, very suggestive of trout. At Scottsburg one welcomes the transfer from the dusty stage to a neat and well-appointed little stern-wheel steamer, by which one reaches the bay at the river mouth. The passage to Gardiner requires three or four hours and is charming. The cañon of the Umpqua is narrow and deep, but the steeps on either hand are densely wooded, and the rich green of the firs, diversified by the lighter tints of cottonwood and willow, softens the ruggedness effectively. In a region more easily reached this stream would be the haunt of artists and tourists. Though its beauties are hardly on a scale to attain grandeur, they fully compass the picturesque. I have rarely seen such a succession of "paintable" bits of scenery as those brought out by the curves and reaches of the lower Umpqua. I was told, also, that the river offered a fair reward to the fisherman, with numerous good camping-places, abundance of wood for the campfire, and clear, cold water everywhere to be had from rills and springs. Certainly one seldom sees a region more attractive to the camper and canoeist, and it seems provoking that it should not be more accessible.

By evening one reaches the pretty village of Gardiner, supported by two large sawmills, neat, thrifty, and attractive. Backed by steep wooded hills, it looks out upon the Umpqua estuary, a lovely bay, whose borders are dotted here and there with the traps of salmon fishers and the cabins and garden-patches of the sturdy loggers. It must be confessed that the presence of a clean and comfortable inn, where I partook of my first well-cooked meal in southern Oregon, takes nothing from the agreeable memories with which my stay at Gardiner is associated.

W. H. D.

THE GIFT OF CHANTILLY.

PARIS, August 26, 1897.

The Institute of France entered into possession of the château and of the forest of Chantilly immediately after the death of the Duke d'Aumale. Nothing is changed in appearance in the beautiful domain, in the château and its surroundings; but, as the poet says, "the mind is its own place," and the wanderer cannot help feeling that much is changed and that the living spirit of Chantilly is departed.

The terms of the donation made by the Prince are worth remembering:

"Wishing to preserve for France the domain of Chantilly in its integrity, with its woods, its lawns, its waters, its buildings and all that they contain—trophies, pictures, books, works of art, all that *ensemble* which forms a compiete and varied monument of French art in all its branches and of the history of my country at its glorious periods—I have resolved to confide it to an illustrious body which has done me the honor to call me to its ranks on various grounds, and which, without avoiding the inevitable transformation of society, does not feel the spirit of faction and can escape too rapid changes, keeping its independence in the midst of our political fluctuations.

"In consequence, I leave to the Institute of France, which will dispose of it on the conditions hereinafter mentioned, the domain of Chantilly as it may exist at the time of my death, with the library and the other artistic or historical collections which I have formed in it."

Without going into the details of the donation, I will only say that the Institute has, in obedience to the will of the Prince, appointed from its own ranks three *conservateurs*, M. Mézières of the French Academy, M. Léopold Delisle, the Director of our National Library, and M. Gruyer of the Academy of Fine Arts, author of a magnificent work on the pictures of Chantilly. M. Delisle is chiefly affected to the library, and M. Gruyer, who was once a curator in the Louvre, to the pictures and works of art.

The château, according to the positive instructions of the Prince, will remain uninhabited. It is to be a mere museum, which will be public two days of the week, as soon as the necessary changes and dispositions are made. The three curators will have lodgings in a pavilion which is at some little distance from the château, and is called the Pavillon d'Enghien. They are not bound to reside always in these lodgings, which are merely their *pied-à-terre* when they make their visits; in the same pavilion there is a fourth apartment, which is the residence of a permanent assistant curator, appointed by the Institute, who is to be not a member of the Institute, but a mere agent. The gift of Chantilly to the French Institute was made with the binding condition that "the Institute should preserve the character of the whole of the domain, and especially that it should make no change in the exterior or interior architecture of the château, the pavilions of Enghien and of Sylvia, the *jeu de paume*, and the three small chapels, . . . and that it should equally maintain the character and the destination of the parks, gardens, canals, rivers, as well as the general distribution of the forests, ponds, and fountains." It is clear that the dominant idea of the Prince was the preservation of Chantilly as a whole, and it is to be hoped that this wish will be well adhered to.

The collections of Chantilly, formed by the Montmorencys and the Condés, were confiscated at the time of the Revolution; they were given back to the Duke de Bourbon, first in 1814, afterwards in 1815. They were chiefly composed then of manuscripts and of written documents, forming 1,260 volumes, well bound. The printed books had been dispersed. The Duke d'Aumale, when he became possessor of Chantilly, felt the necessity of forming a library. He soon found a good occasion to acquire very important books. Frank Hall Standish had left England for France, and, when he died, he bequeathed his collections to King Louis Philippe. At the death of the King, the Duke d'Aumale bought from the heirs the Standish collection of books, composed of 3,504 volumes; many of them were incunabula and books printed on vellum, bought by Standish in France, in Spain, and in Italy (the best part of the library of Count Gaetano Malzi had been acquired by Standish). Having become possessor of the Standish collection, the Duke increased his library by making well-chosen acquisitions at nearly all the important public sales which took place in France and in England after 1850. In 1861 Potier published a 'Catalogue of the Manuscripts and Printed Books composing the Library of M. Armand Cigongne, Member of the Society of Bibliophiles, preceded by a Bibliographical Notice by M. Leroux de Lincy.' M. Cigongne was a stockbroker on the Paris Exchange, and had formed, with an exquisite and almost unerring taste, a collection consisting almost exclusively of French books, poems, dramatic works, novels; he had searched with great care for artistic bindings bearing the arms of illustrious persons. M. Cigongne was one of the first bibliophiles who put a high value not only on a book, but on what we now call its condition—a word which applies to every detail, even to the breadth of a margin. His library was not sold in detail; the Duke d'Aumale offered a large price for the whole, and was fortunate enough to have his offer accepted. It has been my good fortune to be able to examine, one by one, the books of M. Cigongne, and I have often wondered how a man of business, engaged in the laborious life of the Exchange, could have found the time to make such a collection.

After the acquisition of this collection, the library at Twickenham became a rival of the most famous private collections. It was enriched during the decade by various acquisitions made at public sales. After the war of 1870, when the Duke returned to Chantilly, the architect who built the new château found place in it for a library, which resembled almost in every detail the library of Twickenham, with its two stories, its iron balcony between them, its iron doors. The Duke continued to make constant additions to his library. He bought some very valuable manuscripts—the Psalm-book of Ingeburge, the Danish wife of King Philippe Auguste, the Breviary of Jeanne d'Évreux, some volumes of the Hamilton collection, the

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famous miniatures of Jean Fouquet, which had been cut out of the Prayer-book. He bought from an anonymous amateur, through a bookseller, the Horæ of Louise Adélaïde d'Orléans, Abbesse de Chelles; a manuscript written by the famous Jarry; a splendid copy of Pindar, with a binding executed for King Henri II.; the 'Lunettes des Princes' (Jehan Meschinot, 1539), a copy bound for Charles the Fifth; the works of Ronsard (Paris: Buon, 1587), bound for Marguerite de Valois, who had her charming books covered with daisies in various stages of development. I cite these few books to give an idea of the character of the works which have found their way to Chantilly.

Besides this library, embracing exclusively the works entered in the catalogues under the denomination of "livres rares et curieux," there is at Chantilly a second library, which is what we call a "bibliothèque de travail," composed of books of reference, great historical and literary collections. This library, destined for common use, is in a large room, formerly the theatre in the times of the Condés: the books are arranged in what were once the boxes, and there are tables in the pit and on the old stage. A curious peculiarity of this theatre is the fact that there was no other scenery than that of the park, which was visible through a large window. This rural scenery was very suitable for the plays which were represented; princesses liked to appear as shepherdesses, and princes as shepherds. The library of "rare and curious" books will not be accessible without special permission; it would be very unwise to place its treasures in common hands.

Anne of Montmorency, who became Marshal and Constable of France, was not very learned, but he was a patron of letters and art, and many of the Chantilly manuscripts were acquired by him. He procured some manuscripts of Jean du Mas, Seigneur de l'Isle, an ardent bibliophile, who had obtained, it is not known how, some fine manuscripts which had belonged to Jacques d'Armagnac, Duke de Nemours, who was beheaded in 1477. Sixty of the manuscripts of the Duke de Nemours are now in our National Library. Montmorency had some manuscripts made for himself, and received several as presents. The Duke d'Aumale himself wrote notices of the manuscripts at Chantilly, and made researches into their origin. Many interesting details will be found in the complete catalogues which are in preparation. In all, there are 1,450 manuscripts in the collection.

After the manuscripts, we must cite the first productions of the art of printing, the books printed in Mainz, in Strasbourg, the celebrated editions of Mentelin, of Sweynheim and Pannartz, the first editions of Cologne, Augsburg, Milan, Venice, Nuremberg, Foligno, Ulm, Verona, Bologna, Ferrara, Florence, Naples, Brescia, Mantua, Padua, Lyons, Utrecht, Louvain, Lübeck, Rostock, Toulouse, Geneva, etc. The Duke d'Aumale had a great predilection for books printed on vellum, and collected a great many; among others, he took special care to collect the books of Hours *(Heures)*, and in various dioceses (Rome, Bayeux, Besançon, Chartres, Langres, Metz, Nevers, Rouen, etc.), as well as the old "Coutumes," which were the foundation of our present "Code Civil." The printed books actually catalogued form a total of about 8,000 articles. This number may not seem very large, but it does not include the books which are merely books of reference and for common use.

The visits to Chantilly will not begin till a year after the Duke's death; in the interval, everything will be prepared in the château and in all the collections, in conformity with his will. The library is already in perfect order, and M. Léopold Delisle will not have much to do except the supervision of the catalogues, which were not quite completed.

TOKENS OF WOE.

VIRGINIA, August, 1897.

The story of Joseph and Potiphar's wife recurs in Greek mythology ('Iliad,' vi. 168 ff.). Anteia, the Queen of Proetus, made a false charge against Bellerophon, whom accordingly Proetus dispatched to the King of Lycia, Anteia's father, "and gave him *Tokens of Woe, graving in a folded tablet many deadly things*, and bade him show these to Anteia's father, that he might be slain." From the Homeric account it seems clear that, upon his arrival in Lycia, Bellerophon announced to the King that he was the bearer of a *token* from Proetus. But etiquette forbade the King to ask to see that *token* until the guest had been entertained for nine days, at the end of which the King "asked to see what *token* Bellerophon bore from his son-in-law, even Proetus. Now when he had received of him Proetus's *evil token*, first he bade him slay Chimæra, the unconquerable," etc.

Students of the history of the alphabet and of writing have often asked the question, "Wherein consisted these *Tokens of Woe?*" but the question has never been answered to the complete satisfaction of scholars, for the history of the invention of the alphabet is not yet fully written. The subject is elusive and intricate, because it has to deal with comparative palæography. Until twenty-three years ago the existence of a pre-Phœnician script was scarcely suspected by scholars, notwithstanding the fact that in 1859 De Rougé had announced that the Phœnicians did not *originate* their alphabet, but had adapted to their purposes the most ancient Egyptian hieratic script. De Rougé lost the manuscript of his work, and never rewrote it. But after his death his son discovered the rough outline of the father's work and published it in 1874. The theory of De Rougé is generally accepted, and his structure is built upon such solid ground that it will probably never be overthrown or even shaken.

The tradition that, when the Homeric poems were composed, the alphabet had not yet reached Greece is probably correct. The fact that Homer makes no mention of the alphabet has been used as proof that he was ignorant of it. But, however that may be, if Homer does not mention the alphabet specifically, he does mention ideograms or phonograms of some kind or other. And here I must explain, in the thoughts if not the words of another, what is meant by ideograms or phonograms. All primitive writing was ideographic—*i. e.*, the writing itself depicted ideas. The symbols used by such alphabets are therefore called ideograms. There are two kinds of ideograms: (1) pictures, or actual representations of objects—such pictorial writing was used by our American Indians; (2) pictorial symbols used to express abstract ideas, such as the Roman numerals, the signs of the zodiac, etc. As mankind advances in intellectuality, ideographic alphabets are supplanted by phonetic alphabets, in which the symbols are called phonograms, because they express or stand for *sounds*, and not for *ideas* or *things*. They are, however, merely conventionalized ideograms, which usually have suffered abrasion to such an extent that their origin becomes more or less obscured. Now phonograms are of three kinds: (1) verbal signs, which stand for entire words, such as $, £ s. d., lbs., cwt., etc.; (2) syllabic signs, which stand for the articulations of which words are composed; (3) alphabetic signs, or letters, which represent the elementary sounds into which the syllable can be resolved. It is phonograms of this last-named kind which we use to-day. But if we trace the history of any of our letters back far enough, we shall find that they resolve themselves into the conventionalized picture of some object, and that most of them retain features which they have derived from the primitive picture from which they are descended.

Now what kind of ideograms or phonograms were graven upon that folded tablet of which Homer speaks? The question has been asked often, and discussions of it may be found in every elaborate commentary on Homer. In these discussions many arguments are used to prove that Homer could not have had a *letter* in mind; could not, properly speaking, have had *writing* in mind; but, after everything has been said upon the subject that can be said, it remains quite evident to all, except to the wilfully blind, that something *was* written, or scratched, or painted on that folded tablet. The words of Homer presuppose some kind of writing—certainly not *the* art of writing as we understand it, or as the Phœnicians and Greeks understood it, but surely *an* art of writing. It were interesting to discover what kind of writing this was, wherein this system of symbols consisted that was capable of expressing emotion by means of *Tokens of Woe*, and, by inference, *Tokens of Gladness*.

Some years ago Sayce, in a little book on the Hittites, attempted to prove that the Phœnicians got their first notions of linear phonetic alphabetic signs, not from the oldest hieratic script of the Egyptians, but from the ideograms of the Hittites. His thesis is that Cappadocia was the original home of the Hittites—a contention which he attempts to make clear from many of the ideograms in the Hittite characters, *e. g.*, from what he calls their ideogram for country, consisting of two or three cones that are similar to the cones in the volcanic formation in the Udj-Essar-Urgub region of Cappadocia; and from certain peculiarities of their costume as seen in Hittite rock-sculpture and other works of art, *e. g.*, the tip-tilted boots, that are so much like the Greek *zarouchia* of to-day. Sayce argues further that the Hittite empire and civilization spread from Cappadocia southwards to Syria, where so powerful an empire was created that it could successfully resist Egypt, then mighty. From Cappadocia again the Hittites extended their empire to the western seaboard of Asia Minor, until it included almost if not all the vast peninsula, and fronted upon Assyria and Egypt in the east and south. In all this broad empire one and the same system of ideographic writing prevailed, and that system of writing must have been known to the

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peoples who jostled elbows with the Phœnicians.

There are two possible theories as to how the knowledge of the Hittite symbols reached Greece. According to one, the Phœnicians adapted it to their purposes by making it linear and phonetic, and then passed it on to the Greeks, thus justifying the Greek traditions about the Phœnician origin of the Greek alphabet, for the Greeks knew nothing about a *pre*-Phœnician alphabet. But this is not the theory which Sayce advocates. On the contrary, he inclines to the opinion that the Greeks got the Hittite ideographic characters from the Phrygians of the Smyrna region, who had modified it, perhaps, and reduced it to a linear script. This script was further modified, simplified, and beautified by the Greeks, who made it wholly linear and phonetic. When it had been perfected by the Greeks, who improved upon everything which they touched, the modified or Greek alphabet was adopted by the Phrygians, who made abundant use of it, *e. g.*, on the rock tombs of the city of Midas.

Sayce's theory has been twice refuted with German elaborateness by Schlottmann and Hinrichs. At the time of the appearance of Sayce's book I was unwilling to admit the Hittite origin of the Phœnician alphabet, but still the theory had great fascination for me, because I had just returned from long journeys in Asia—journeys that had extended over several years, and had made it possible for me to gaze with my own eyes upon almost all the art remains of the Hittite civilization from Carchemish to the region of Smyrna. But the links in the chain that would connect Greece with the Hittite empire seemed to be wanting, although, of course, there was the Phrygian Pelops, who was destined to influence Mycenæan civilization so powerfully. But, while rejecting the Hittite origin of the Phœnician or of the Greek alphabet, another thought had been ever-present with me as I studied the Hittite remains that are scattered up and down the length and breadth of the Turkish empire in Asia. The thought was, Have we not here Homer's *Tokens of Woe?* I could not prove it to my satisfaction, and for two reasons. In the first place, Greece was remote, and Hittite influence upon Greece, even through the mediation of the Phrygians, seemed small and weak. This point, though, seemed of minor importance, because the *Tokens of Woe* must have come to Proetus in Tiryns from Lycia at the time when he married the daughter of the King of Lycia. Then, next in order, Hittite influence in Lycia would have to be assumed, for it cannot be proved, methinks. Of course, there is plenty of Asiatic influence to be seen in Lycian art, but it is of later date than the hoary Hittite empire. In fact, the Hittite remains that are nearest to Lycia are in Isauro-Pisidia, at El-Flatun Puñar and at Fassiller, where I discovered a colossal Hittite stele with sculpture in high relief, and a Hittite seal, which the curious may find depicted in Perrot's 'History of Art.' Accordingly, Hittite influence in Lycia cannot be proved, nor can it be proved that we must recognize the *Tokens of Woe* in the Hittite ideograms. This thought, therefore, took a back seat, awaiting further developments and more exact information.

Now at a time when men had no suspicion of the wide territory covered by what we call the Mycenæan civilization; at a time when certain stone seals were still called *Inselsteine*, Schliemann had discovered in Troy many strange and novel patterns impressed upon terracotta whorls, seals, vases, and other objects. One characteristic of these patterns was noteworthy: there was an absence in them of Egyptian, and almost equally of Assyrian, influence, with no trace of Phœnician characters. Even then some scholars held that these "patterns of Hissarlik were not mere ornaments or symbols, but had a meaning and were true signs," *i. e.*, phonograms. Then came Mycenæ with its flood of light, which grows more intense with each succeeding year. In 1894 Mr. A. J. Evans published in the *Journal of Hellenic Studies* an article entitled "Primitive Pictographs and a Pre-Phœnician Script from Crete and the Peloponnese" (reprinted the next year in book form). In this article Mr. Evans differentiates two classes of seal-stones: (1) such as belong to a very ancient period (the third millennium B. C.) and bear ideograms engraved upon their facets, and (2) such as belong to a younger period and bear phonograms and even a linear script engraved upon their facets. These stones, to describe them as nearly as possible in Mr. Evans's own words, are (1) three-sided or prism-shaped with a string-hole, (2) four-sided equilateral, or columnar, (3) four-sided with two larger facets, (4) seal-stones with a single facet. Upon their facets they bear a striking series of pictograms, some even presenting characters that are remarkably alphabetic. Evans believes that these are not mere idle figures carved at random, but must have a definite meaning and are in fact a form of script. He points out that there is method and intention in the choice and arrangement of the symbols, and that even a boustrophedon arrangement is quite evident on some of them. They are therefore not meaningless ornaments. Certain of these symbols recur frequently, such as the human eye, the bent leg, the bent arm, etc. The choice of symbols is evidently restricted by some practical consideration, and while some objects are of frequent occurrence, others equally obvious are conspicuous by their absence. Abbreviated symbols are made use of, such as the head for the whole animal. Gesture-language in graphic form appears, an invaluable resource of early pictography for the expression of ideas and emotions, such as crossed hands (denoting ten), the open hand (a palm measure), the bent leg (marching, or approaching), a man standing alone with arms held downwards (perhaps denoting ownership), an arm holding a curved instrument (forcible action, such as was called for by the *Tokens of Woe* which Bellerophon bore to the King of Lycia), and many others.

These symbols occur almost exclusively in groups of from two to seven. The most frequent, however, are groups of two or three, a fact which seems to indicate that the symbols thus appearing had a syllabic character. Certain fixed principles are traceable in the arrangement of the symbols in the several groups. Thus, the human eye usually appears at the beginning or end of a line. In the three cases in which the bent leg makes its appearance, it is in immediate contiguity with a symbol that seems to stand for a door or a gate. When the columnar seal-stones are rolled out on the principle of a Babylonian cylinder, we notice that in several cases a boustrophedon arrangement has been adopted, as I have already stated. Among these symbols we find many relating to the human body and its parts; we also find houses and household utensils, marine subjects, animals and birds, vegetable forms, heavenly bodies, geographical symbols, geometrical figures, besides a number of uncertain symbols.

These symbols were not copied from nor influenced by either Asia or Egypt, but, where a parallelism appears, it is the parallelism of an independent system drawn from a common source. About sixteen symbols approach Egyptian and sixteen Hittite forms, but still the proportion of affinities points to Asia, when we consider that the choice of comparisons in the case of the Egyptian hieroglyphs is very much larger than is that of the Hittite. Moreover, the promiscuous way in which the signs are disposed suggests the Hittite monuments. Besides, the columnar arrangement of the sides of the seals recalls the sculptured stones of Hamath. And again, the boustrophedon arrangement is found both on these seal-stones and on the Hittite monuments. But we have not to do in either case with a mere servile imitation of foreign symbols; there is only a collateral relationship, and both the Cretan and the Hittite symbols grew up out of the still more primitive pictographic elements. The more primitive elements which were the parent stock of the symbols we are discussing, Mr. Evans finds in the Cretan and Peloponnesian seal-stones of the first period, *i. e.*, of the third millennium, B. C. As to the Hittite symbols, that is a question which need not delay us further on this occasion. On the contrary, let us gather up Mr. Evans's chief points: he has proved the existence of primitive Aegean pictograms akin to the Hittite symbols; from these pictograms there arose on the one hand a linear syllabic script that extended to continental Greece and to Syria, and on the other hand a Cypriote syllabary. Now Mr. Evans's thesis is to prove that the theory which derives the Phœnician alphabet from the most ancient form of the hieratic script of Egypt must give place to his new theory, which derives the Phœnician alphabet from an Aegean or Mycenæan prototype. He sustains his thesis with marvellous learning, and he makes out a most plausible and fascinating case, but he does not prove his point; De Rougé's structure is erected on the solid rock and refuses to be shaken. Of Evans's magnificent paper we are forced to ask:

"Warum in die Weite schweifen?
Denn das Gute liegt so nah."

This Aegean script of the third millennium before our era, what is it? What is it, indeed, but the Tokens of Woe of Homer, tokens that had to give place to the more practical Phœnician letters which Herodotus and general Greek tradition say were brought to Greece by the Phœnician merchants of the Syrian seaboard? My belief (I have seen the question mooted only once, and that was by Salomon Reinach in the *Chroniques d'Orient*) that we have the Tokens of Woe at last is not based on mere assumption or conjecture. It seems to be warranted by the character of the symbols themselves, which are capable of expressing emotion of various kinds and degrees, *e. g.*, the bent arm holding a scimitarlike weapon was amply sufficient to indicate to the King of Lycia what his worthy son-in-law expected of him in the matter of Bellerophon. It seems warranted by the fact that this

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system of symbols covered a wide territory, and was indeed in use throughout the whole world that was in any way affected by Greek influence. It seems to be warranted by the fact that it was in universal use, not merely among the rich and princely, but among all classes, even the lowliest. For some of the stones are the seals of dealers in or producers of milk, cheese, and butter, as can be seen at a glance. It was, therefore, in use even among shepherds. The suggestion, then, that we have found the Tokens of Woe at last is perhaps something more than a plausible theory.

J. R. S. STERRETT.

Correspondence.

THE LOGIC OF IT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I beg leave to call your attention to the fact that an important American industry appears to have been seriously injured by the action of Col. Waring in removing the mud and snow from the streets of the city of New York. In *McClure's Magazine* for September (page 921), Col. Waring says, in his article on "The Cleaning of a Great City":

"I have been told by the President of the United States Rubber Company that this snow removal, together with the abolition of mud from the streets at all seasons, has cost that company $100,000 per year by reason of the decreased demand for rubber boots and shoes. What this means to the poorer people of the city, as compared with their previous suffering, need not be said."

So that the Colonel not only inflicts this damage on the rubber industry, but actually exults in the act!

Ought not some steps to be taken by a paternal government to redress this foul wrong to the Rubber Company, and also, to bring the Colonel to a sense of the enormity of his conduct? Was not the wearing-apparel clause in the Dingley tariff enacted in order to drive customers to the shops of New York shopkeepers? And are not dealers in India-rubber shoes as much entitled to protection as dealers in fair-weather clothing? Is the question of protection or no protection to the American clothing-dealer to depend on the weather in which his wares are worn—to be determined by the test of rain or shine?

The Colonel speaks of the "poorer people of the city" and their "previous sufferings." What wretched free-trade sophistry! What difference does it make whether the poorer people suffer or not? The first business of the American Government is to build up American industries; and (let me add, sir) that should be the business of every official in the United States, as far as his power extends. At the very least, if he injures an American industry, he should not be allowed to boast of it with impunity. Such an act must (to every true American heart) be proof of even greater wickedness than that of the iniquitous Bayard.

When the Rubber Company received the $100,000 of which Col. Waring has now deprived them, they were able to pay, and presumably did pay, more wages than they pay now. Col. Waring, therefore, has probably inflicted a serious injury on many innocent dealers in India-rubber shoes and their employees—exactly such an injury in fact, as was complained of by the Merchants' and Manufacturers' Board of Trade when they asked for the enactment of the wearing-apparel clause in the Dingley tariff limiting the value of personal effects entitled to exemption to the sum of $100.

I do not find any fault with Col. Waring's conduct in cleaning the streets of New York. What I maintain is, that, according to the protectionist theory, the saving to the poor people by reason of the decreased demand for rubber boots and shoes is no benefit to the community. The essential feature of protectionism is that it is a benefit to the State that its citizens should be forced, by means of tariff laws, to pay higher prices for certain articles than they would pay if trade were free. The reason assigned for this proposition is that the excessive prices thus wrung from the consumers are used to build up industries that would not otherwise exist, and that as laborers are employed in these industries whose wages might be reduced or destroyed if the protective tariff should be repealed, it must, therefore, be an injury to the community to repeal the tariff. Now, it is evident that in the case of the New York street-cleaning the incompetency or dishonesty of Col. Waring's predecessors exactly corresponded to a protective tariff as far as the India-rubber industry is concerned, because the people of the city were forced, by the mismanagement of the Street-Cleaning Department, to increase their purchases of India-rubber shoes, just as they might have been by a protective tariff.

The splendid results of Col. Waring's good management exactly correspond to a repeal of a protective tariff. They have, it is true, diminished the profits of a certain industry —and presumably the wages of its employees —but, on the other hand, they have saved to the people of New York, no doubt, a much greater sum. And—what is really the root of the whole matter—the people's money is their own, and they ought not to be forced, either by a protective tariff, by official misconduct, or in any other way, to part with it against their will and without compensation, whether for the purpose of building up an industry or not. At the present day a far greater tax, and of the same kind, is paid all over the United States on almost every article of clothing and on many articles of general consumption. May we not hope that some day another Waring in a still higher office will complete the work that Grover Cleveland began ten years ago?

DANIEL HOLSMAN.

505 CHESTNUT ST., PHILADELPHIA, September 3, 1897.

PRESIDENT ANDREWS ON VERGIL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: When has the head of a reputable university made a more astonishing statement than that made by President E. B. Andrews, in the current *Cosmopolitan?* He says: "Large parts of classical literature reek with filth; and much of Vergil and Horace that is used in the class-room, editors and teachers misinterpret to make it decent." All lovers of Horace, and all who understand his spirit, will resent the imputation, even as against this gay philosopher; but in the case of Vergil, what an astonishing accusation President Andrews has made. I had supposed that Vergil was beyond the reach of any such assault. If testimony is needed, what could be more conclusive than the testimony of two so critical and pure-minded men as Dante and Tennyson? Dante's attitude toward Vergil is that of a reverent pupil toward an adored master. He is proud to call him "my master and my author." Tennyson testifies the same feeling in the lines:

"I salute thee, Mantovano, I that loved thee since my day began;
Wielder of the stateliest measure ever moulded by the lips of man."

I believe it was a Brooklyn school-committeeman who discovered that Longfellow was indecent, and that even that inoffensive jingle, "Excelsior," contains the objectionable lines:

"Stay, stay, the maiden said, and rest
Thy weary head upon this breast."

To parochial-minded men of this class all literature must be objectionable; but it is amazing to find such views held by the President of Brown University. If we discard Vergil as indecent, surely we must also discard Shakspere and the English Bible and nine-tenths of the standard literature of the world. Cannot the enemies of classical study find valid arguments without resorting to wild, whirling words which disclose either an astonishing ignorance or a lamentable recklessness? To call Vergil "indecent" is "prurient prudery" gone mad.

ARTHUR MARK CUMMINGS.

BOSTON, MASS., September 4, 1897.

CERVANTES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The name of Cervantes is not a common one in Spain, and the probability is that those who bear it are kinsmen. Those interested in the cult of the author of 'Don Quixote' may possibly, therefore, find assistance in tracing his genealogy from the occurrence of two persons bearing that patronymic among the officials of the Inquisition in the sixteenth century. A cedula of Ferdinand of Aragon, bearing date August 16, 1514, recites that he had been informed that the Licentiate Cervantes, advocate of the fisc in the Inquisition of Cordoba, had abandoned the office and taken another, whereupon he had appointed the Licentiate Francisco de Oro to fill the vacancy. He now learns that Cervantes had only obtained leave of absence, had furnished a substitute, and had now returned to duty; wherefore, he restores him to the position and orders his accustomed salary to be paid (*Archivo General de Simancas, Consejo de Inquisición, Libro III., fol. 387).*

Another Cervantes, the Licentiate Gaspar, was inquisitor of Saragossa in 1560, at which date he was sent by Inquisitor-General Valdés to inspect the Inquisition of Barcelona (*ibidem, Espedientes de Visitas de Barcelona, Legajo 15, fol. 28*).

It may be mentioned that officials of the Inquisition were not necessarily clerics vowed to celibacy.

H. C. L.

PHILADELPHIA, August 30, 1897.

Notes.

'The Life of Tennyson,' by his son, in two volumes, has the post of honor on Macmillan's October list; and close upon it in interest will be the 'Letters of Elizabeth Barrett Browning,' in two volumes, with its

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glimpses of Paris during the *Coup d'Etat* and of Italy in times of stress. Other announcements are 'The Story of Gladstone's Life,' by Justin McCarthy; 'The Household of the Lafayettes,' by Edith Sichel; Brandes's 'William Shakspere'; a ninth volume supplementary to Wheatley's edition of Pepys's Diary; 'Biblical Quotations from Old English Prose Writers [pre-Wiclifflte],' by Prof. Albert S. Cook of Yale; Krüger's 'History of Early Christian Literature in the First Three Centuries'; 'Pausanias's Description of Greece,' translated with a commentary by J. G. Frazer, in six volumes; 'Sketches from Old Virginia,' by A. G. Bradley; 'The Old Santa Fé Trail,' by Col. Henry Inman; and a 'Political Primer of New York State and City,' by Miss Fielde.

Besides the amplified 'Impressions of South Africa,' by James Bryce, the Century Co. will publish 'Forty-six Years in the Army,' by Gen. John M. Schofield, and 'An Artist's Letters from Japan,' by John La Farge.

From Dodd, Mead & Co. we are to have the 'Polychrome Bible,' a wholly new version of the Old Testament, with its composite structure shown in colored printing, under the editorship of Prof. Paul Haupt of Johns Hopkins; a 'History of the Literature of the Victorian Era,' by Clement K. Shorter; 'Pictures from the Life of Nelson,' by W. Clark Russell; 'Constitutional Studies,' by James Schouler, who now betakes himself to the sixth and concluding volume, embracing the civil war, of his 'History of the United States'; 'Colonization in the United States,' by Prof. Barnett Smith; 'The New England Primer,' edited by Paul Leicester Ford; a new work on the Brontës, by Angus Mackay; translations of A. Lavignac's 'Voyage Artistique à Bayreuth' and of Camille Bellaigue's 'Portraits of Musicians'; 'Stories of Famous Operas,' by Miss Guerber; 'Romance of the Irish Stage,' by Fitzgerald Molloy, and 'Dariel,' a romance of Surrey, by R. D. Blackmore.

Tennyson's 'In Memoriam,' illustrated by Harry Fenn, and furnished with a preface by Dr. Henry Van Dyke, is to be handsomely produced for the holidays by Fords, Howard & Hulbert.

Roberts Bros. will shortly issue Renan's 'Antichrist,' translated and edited by Joseph Henry Allen, and 'In Indian Tents,' stories told by the Indians of the Penobscot, Passamaquoddy, and Micmac tribes to Abby L. Alger.

D. C. Heath & Co. have in press the Second Part of 'Faust,' edited by Prof. Calvin Thomas of Columbia University.

A new Boston firm, of the class which is exercising a wholesome influence on taste in book manufacture, Richard G. Badger & Co., announces 'The Right Side of the Car,' a story by John Uri Lloyd, author of 'Etidorhpa.'

L. C. Page & Co. have nearly ready a new illustrated edition of William Kirby's 'Golden Dog,' a romance of Quebec.

Herbert S. Stone & Co., Chicago, will publish 'What Maisie Knew,' by Henry James; 'Phyllis in Bohemia,' by L. H. Bickford and Richard Stillman Powell; 'For the Love of Tonita, and Other Tales of the Mesas,' by Charles Fleming Embree; and 'Literary Statesmen, and Others,' essays by Norman Hapgood.

William Doxey, San Francisco, will issue 'Idle Hours in a Library,' by William Henry Hudson; 'The Wild Flowers of California: Their Names, Haunts, and Habits,' by Mary Elizabeth Parsons, illustrated by Margaret Warriner Buck; and 'The Sonnets from the *Trophées* of José de Hérédia,' translated by Edward Robeson Taylor.

If a sufficient number of guinea subscriptions can be obtained, the Clarendon Press, Oxford, will undertake an imperial quarto containing a facsimile of the original MS. of the Epistles to Timothy, Titus, and Philemon in Welsh, with a comparison of parallel versions and other enrichments. It will show the formation of a Welsh theological terminology and the development of a prose literary standard.

Hachette has published another volume in its series of monographs of Great French Writers, the author honored this time being the delightful, the subtle, the inimitable Marivaux. Coming so soon after the admirable work on Beaumarchais, the present one suffers by comparison. M. Gaston Deschamps, to whom has fallen the task of telling us about the delicate playwright and the novelist who inspired Richardson, has not been as happy as M. Hallays, and has failed to produce one of those books which come to mind as often as the name of the subject is mentioned. Not that the biography is a failure or the critical estimate a mistaken one; merely that there is not here that magic of style which in Hallays's 'Beaumarchais' made the man live again for us. That M. Deschamps has peculiar qualifications which pointed him out as the writer *par excellence* to take up Marivaux, every one must admit; but has he made the most of his subject? It is, not enough to sympathize with Marivaux to the extent of disliking Molière and preferring the *soubrettes* of the eighteenth-century writer to the *domestiques* of the monarch of the comic stage. The book is easy reading for the most part, but is not striking in any respect, and it cannot be said that M. Deschamps has added to our knowledge of Marivaux or contributed to endear him more to us. Marivaux cannot be imitated, even by Musset, who merely surpasses him; hence it is impossible to speak the Marivaux tongue in writing about him, and no doubt this is the secret of our slight feeling of disappointment with M. Deschamps's work.

In the August number of the Bulletin of the New York Public Library is begun publication of 237 copy-press letters of Washington's acquired by the Lenox Library in 1895. They are on thin paper, partly reinforced in pencil, and sometimes illegible.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for August contributes to Jubilee literature an interesting review of explorations within British territory during the last sixty years. Each continent is taken up in turn, and, after a brief description of what had been accomplished in 1837, an account is given of the principal expeditions and their results. It is noteworthy that the greater part of the knowledge acquired of southern Central Asia is due to native Indian explorers. There is also a short notice, with a map, of the Mississippi flood of last April, by Henry Gannett of the United States Geological Survey. The region flooded had a population of nearly 400,000, and contained "fully 2,000,000 acres of cultivated land, mainly devoted to cotton and maize," and which produced a crop last year of 370,000 bales of cotton and more than 11,000,000 bushels of maize, valued at about $16,400,000. Extracts are given from recent Canadian official reports in regard to gold in the Yukon district.

Petermann's Mitteilungen, number seven, opens with an account of the remarkable crater lakes of the Eifel in Rhenish Prussia, together with tables and charts of depth and temperature. This is followed by the conclusion of Dr. Supan's summary of the scientific results of the Nansen expedition, and notes upon a map of middle Albania and Epirus showing the distribution of plant-life in this region.

A naturalist has been sent out by the British Museum, at the expense of Dr. John Murray, to explore Christmas Island, which lies two hundred miles south of Java and is separated from it by an ocean four miles deep. Its area is about one hundred square miles, the highest point being about 1,200 feet, and it has a remarkable fauna. "Three of the five known mammals," says the London *Times*, "all the land birds, and four out of five land reptiles are endemic. Of insects, out of some thirty-five specimens that have been determined, twenty-three were new." The flora, in which orchids are very common, is almost wholly unknown. The island, of which a small part only has been explored, is about to be utilized by a commercial company for its phosphates. This makes very desirable a scientific examination before its native conditions are altered by man's agency.

The Genizah, or treasure-house of an ancient synagogue in Cairo, is described in the *Times* by Dr. S. Schechter of Cambridge, Eng. It is a windowless and doorless room at the end of the gallery, with an entrance through a big shapeless hole reached by a ladder. Here, in obedience to the injunction upon the Jews not to destroy any of their sacred books, which finally came to include the preservation of all writings in the Hebrew characters, have been deposited, during the past thousand years, worn-out and defective copies of such books, sound copies of "disgraced" books (that is, such as have once pretended to the rank of Scriptures, but have been authoritatively condemned as uninspired), and various Hebrew documents. Some parts of the immense mass, which includes books printed during the last four hundred years, are in a fair state of preservation, others are squeezed into unshapely lumps, while still others are "literally ground to dust in the terrible struggle for space." Dr. Schechter was able to rescue about forty thousand fragments of manuscripts, which have been placed in the library of the University of Cambridge, and are now being carefully examined. They consist mainly of parts of the Old Testament, some going as "far back as the tenth century," of Jewish liturgical works, of the two Talmuds, very many hymns, legal documents, letters, prescriptions, amulets, and fragments of miscellaneous works.

From a short essay on "Nationaljudenthum und Zionismus," in *Die Kritik* (Berlin) for August 7, we learn that the movement for the reëstablishment of an independent Jewish state in Palestine has thus far resulted in the foundation, within the last ten years, of twenty-six flourishing villages, with a population of 9,000 peasants—a notable instance, probably without parallel in history, of a mercantile city population turning suddenly into hard-working tillers of the soil. The Jewish contributor to the *Kritik* attributes the success of the

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movement to the unheard-of idealism of which his fellow-believers are capable, and to the enthusiasm with which the youth of his race has received the new ideas. These ideas of Jewish nationalism and of Zionism have both sprung from the conviction, which the last few decades have ripened, that a final assimilation of the Hebrews with the nations of western Europe is a practical impossibility.

A startling comparison was contained in a statement made recently in Parliament by Lord George Hamilton in his Indian budget speech. After referring to the extraordinary number of persons who have been fed by the Indian Government in the "relief camps" and by other agencies, amounting to several millions, he said, in effect, that throughout the present famine the greatest number of persons relieved at any one time bore a much smaller proportion to the population of British India than the proportion of persons in permanent receipt of poor relief in England bears to the population of that country.

There is in England a body of persons who have associated themselves together as the Thames Valley Legitimist Club. Their peculiar mission is to uphold the right of the Stuart family to the throne of Great Britain. To these odd people, not Queen Victoria, but a German princess, is their rightful sovereign. The club holds its meetings at intervals, but does nothing more dangerous than to pass futile resolutions, which are reported in the newspapers as practical jokes. But these belated Jacobites are not to be left alone in the enjoyment of their craze. A new association has just sprung up, which calls itself the Society of the Red Carnation, and seeks to cut into the Jacobite business. The Council of the Thames Valley Legitimist Club has gravely resolved that the new society is "unnecessary," and that the advanced programme is bound to create "divisions and disgust among all true Legitimists and Jacobites," and to bring the cause into derision. The speedy dissolution of the intruder is advised by the Council of the original patentees.

The overcrowded state of the medical profession in Great Britain has recently been the subject of discussion in the London press, and particularly in the columns of the *Standard*. Medical men are not so well off now as they were thirty or forty years ago. Among the causes of this state of things are, it is urged: (1) Increased competition; (2) the enormous growth of the out-patient departments of hospitals, and the increase in the number of special hospitals; (3) the great increase in the sale of patent medicines; (4) the liberty allowed to quacks and other unqualified practitioners; and (5) the extensive prescribing by chemists and druggists. The increase in the number of practitioners has been relatively greater than the increase in the population. In 1878 there was one medical practitioner to every 1,645 persons in England and Wales; now there is one practitioner to every 1,451 only. The facilities for education among the less well-to-do classes have, no doubt, had their share in adding to the numbers who have swollen the ranks of the medical profession. The number of hospitals and dispensaries in England and Wales was 755, with a medical staff of 3,377, in 1878; in 1893, the hospitals and dispensaries numbered 928, and the medical staff 4,454.

The lamps of literature in South America are but few in number. The extinction of any one of them cannot, therefore, but be regretted. For some twenty years past the colony of British Guiana has produced a very creditable half-yearly magazine bearing the name of *Timehri*, which is the aboriginal Indian term for the primitive picture-writings found in that part of the continent. This journal has successively been under the editorship of Messrs. Im Thurn, Quelch, and Rodway, who have themselves contributed largely to its columns. Among its other contributors have been Messrs. Kirke, Jenman, Alford Nichols, and Prof. J. B. Harrison, with others of British Guiana and the West Indian Islands. The publication was not a commercial venture, and never paid its expenses. It was carried on at the expense of the Royal Agricultural and Commercial Society of British Guiana. Having regard to the grave condition of the sugar industry of the colony, which is being gradually borne down by the operation of the foreign bounties upon beet sugar, the Society does not feel justified in continuing its support to the publication after the 31st of December next, when the last number will appear. The happy possessors of complete sets of *Timehri* will all the more cherish their volumes.

Two numbers of the *Boletin de la Sociedad Geográfica de Lima* (2d and 3d trimestres, Año VI.) have been issued simultaneously, and present additional papers on the indigenous languages of the Andean region by Dr. Leonardo Villar and Don Eulogio Delgado. In the second trimestre we note articles of timely interest in connection with the recent gold excitement in the Province of Carabaya, by Antonio Raimondi (a reprint of a paper originally sent to the Royal Geographical Society of London), and by Manuel Cesár Vidal, whose observations were of later date than those of Raimondi. Señor Vidal's account is aided by a map. Of special interest to North Americans is the description (3d trimestre), by Solón Bailey, of Mt. Misti, under the brow of which stands the Arequipa Observatory of Harvard College. A cross section of the crater, and a beautiful phototype of the observatory, with Mt. Misti in the background, accompany the article.

The second volume of the 'Geografía Comercial de la América del Sur,' by Carlos B. Cisneros and Rómolo E. Garcia (Lima: J. Mesinas), has just been issued. The present volume deals with the Argentine Republic, and within 100 pages gives an excellent account of its geographical features and products, its cities and their leading industries, together with routes of communication; the whole elucidated by a small but well-executed map.

—The leading articles in the *Atlantic* for September are Theodore Roosevelt's on the New York Police Force, and Carroll D. Wright's "Are the Rich Growing Richer and the Poor Poorer?" Mr. Roosevelt gives a history of his own police administration, and mentions several facts worth bearing in mind, *e. g.*, that the best policemen come from military, naval, or railroad services; that the result of the "merit system" is to increase the percentage of Americans on the force; that before each election the board was obliged to reject as morally or mentally unfit more than one thousand of the election officers picked out by party organizations; that it is since Tammany disappeared that the Bertillon identification system has been introduced, the bicycle squad set up, and the tramp lodging-houses abolished. Mr. Wright, who has not only devoted years to the accumulation of statistics on the subject, but who is a man of sense and judgment, declares that the statement so continually made about the rich and poor is, as a whole, untrue. Both rich and poor are improving in condition. Wealth is not stationary, and consequently the accumulation of fortunes for the few does not mean "a corresponding drainage from the many." He does not discuss the favorite Socialist question whether the poor get their fair share of the general increase, though he thinks they do not; but as he does not, and, indeed, cannot, explain what a fair share would be, this has no bearing on his general argument. Mrs. Mabel Loomis Todd's "In Quest of a Shadow" is a pleasant account of the observation of the total eclipse of the sun in 1896, in the Japanese island of Yezo, with many charming little touches of Japanese life and manners. Mrs. Todd, our readers do not need to be reminded, accompanied the Massachusetts expedition. "A Man and the Sea," by Guy H. Scull, is good realism. But is there such a thing as an abstract realistic man, like the economic man of Ricardo and Malthus? Prof. Gildersleeve's "A Southerner in the Peloponnesian War" is a fanciful attempt to find correspondences between our civil war and that between Athens and Sparta. He himself admits that "there is no real resemblance" outside "the inevitable features of all armed conflicts," and his article has the curious effect of producing, under the promise of a parallel, a glaring contrast. Henry Childs Merwin, who writes about "The American Notion of Equality," and Prof. Woodrow Wilson, who declares that the art of "Being Human" is the art of Freedom and of Force, may be said to baffle criticism. Mr. Hill's second instalment of Swift's unpublished letters is full of entertainment. The letter of April 29, 1721, in which the Dean explains his ability as a Christian to take the oath of allegiance "to any Prince in possession," is as good as anything in Gulliver. His argument on the subject, he says, has already "convinced a young Gentleman of great Parts and Virtue," and he feels that he could "defend himself" by it anywhere.

—*Scribner's* has two readable illustrated articles on out-of-the-way places, one on San Sebastian, by William Henry Bishop; the other on the "Mingan Seigniory" in Canada, by Frederic Irland. Mr. Bishop doubts if Americans know much about San Sebastian—he found none there—though it cannot be above thirty miles from Biarritz. He notices, what may be observed in Spanish America also, the utter difference in character between the Frenchman and the Spaniard—a difference, notwithstanding their common religion and other points of solidarity, as great, perhaps, in some respects, as that between the Spaniard and the Englishman. San Sebastian is a place to which Spanish royalty goes, and Mr. Bishop saw the royalties bathe there, much as one might see bathers at Newport. He was struck with their simplicity and entire naturalness; even the infant King being allowed to wade about barefoot and dig in the sand like any other child. There is nothing very remarkable about this, but kings and queens in Europe nowadays always strike American travellers as simple and unaffected people,

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because we involuntarily contrast their manners and dress with those of the home millionaire, our supreme type. The account given of the Mingan salmon by Mr. Irland is true, though people who have not been in that curious fishing country would not be likely to credit it. We have seen and can vouch for the fifteen-foot waterfalls up which the fish leap, and, still more singular, for the rocky salmon pool, so crowded that, as Mr. Irland says, "their tails and dorsal fins could constantly be seen sticking out of the water." Walter A. Wyckoff's account of his experiment in passing himself off as a laboring man ("The Workers—A Day Laborer at West Point") is overdone. Why should masons, bricklayers, and plasterers go to work at the lowest form of manual labor, at West Point, at $1.60 per day, when the skilled labor of men of their sort commands $3.50? And how do they manage to pay out of this for "huge slices of juicy sirloin" for supper? If the story is fact, it shows a strange state of things in the labor market. F. B. Sanborn's "Lord Byron in the Greek Revolution" is based in part on an examination, made some years ago, of books and manuscripts in Finlay's Athenian house. In "Some Notes on Tennessee's Centennial," accompanied by illustrations of his own, F. Hopkinson Smith describes this achievement of the South as it is, and sheds a passing tear over the South as it was, in what he calls the "Wood-fire and Old Mahogany" period, when Col. Cyarter of Cyartersville still owned a number of "likely boys," and Mr. Hopkinson Smith was too young to suspect that the civilization about him was already doomed. "At the Foot of the Rockies," by Abbe Carter Goodloe, is worth reading, and the opening chapters of "The Durket Sperret," by Sarah Barnwell Elliott, show power.

—*Harper's* contains an article, in a vein of prophecy, by Capt. Mahan, "A Twentieth Century Outlook," and an illustrated article on "The Beginnings of the American Navy," by James Barnes, both of which certainly ought not to have appeared in the same number, for one destroys the effect of the other. Capt. Mahan thinks that the next century will see a state of affairs—what it is to be, he is far from explaining clearly, for the excellent reason that he does not know—in which we shall need a powerful navy. Mr. Barnes, on the other hand, shows that on the occasion when we were in most pressing need of ships and had opposed to us the greatest naval power in the world, we managed to do very well without any navy at all. It seems that at the time of the Revolution, the United States lost but twenty-four regularly armed vessels during the war, while the British lost one hundred and two. About eight hundred vessels of all kinds were captured by the American cruisers and privateers, while not a single Yankee cruiser was taken by the privateers of England; yet sixteen English cruisers were captured by American privateers. These figures are accompanied by the statement that it is "rather surprising" that the American people should not immediately, on the termination of the war with England, "have profited more than they did by her example in establishing a naval force on a peace footing." On the contrary, it is not surprising at all; what is surprising is that the writer should think so. This article, Mrs. Pennell's "Around London by Bicycle" (the illustrations by her husband), and "The Lotus Land of the Pacific," by John Harrison Wagner, are the chief illustrated papers, though Frederick Remington's "Great Medicine Horse" should not be overlooked. The most substantial article in the number is Henry James's account of Du Maurier, which we advise every one to read. It is a study of Leech's great successor (who, as Mr. James points out, stands alone in his ability to see "the funny" in the beautiful, and the beautiful in "the funny"), of a friend, and also of English caricature—a subject in which Mr. James is thoroughly at home. Besides all this, there is an elaborate criticism of the three novels, of which Mr. James thinks 'Peter Ibbetson' the best; he declares that Du Maurier himself could not see why 'Trilby' was picked out as his masterpiece by the public. A pathetic account is given of the effect of the awful burst of publicity upon him, when the world was taken by storm, for he was a modest man, and to him the glare and noise of the to-do made over him by the many-headed was a "botheration." When the light began to fail him, as it soon did, he was actually suffering from a surfeit of fame; the critic hardly needed to hesitate over what he calls the whimsicality of saying that the great caricaturist had not merely achieved what he wished and enjoyed what he wanted, but had both enjoyed and achieved a good deal more.

—It would be impossible to notice the *Century* for this month critically without going into a great deal of detail. Pierre de Coubertin's notes about "Royalists and Republicans" (illustrated by A. Castaigne) set old Bourbondom on its legs once more in the midst of contemporary France, evoking for the purpose the royal ghost of Frohsdorf. Apart from the continued fiction, all of which will, no doubt, claim criticism sooner or later as books, and to pass over for the same reason the penultimate instalment of General Porter's "Campaigning with Grant," two illustrated articles out of the common way are "Prisoners of State at Boro Boedor," by Eliza Ruhamah Scidmore, and "Cruelty in the Congo Free State," from the journals of the late E. J. Glave, an account of whose last days and death is subjoined by the editor of the magazine in a postscript. The first of them gives a description of ruins of Buddhist and Brahmanic temples in middle Java, said to surpass in "extent and magnificence" anything to be seen in Egypt or India—beauty and grandeur, it will be noticed, are not the terms chosen; the second is one of those sad and interesting chapters of African life which make us sometimes regret that the advance of knowledge and discovery and all the appliances of publicity must bring within our horizon more and more human wretchedness, curable only, however, by more publicity. Harry Furniss, the caricaturist, furnishes some "Glimpses of Gladstone," and seems to labor under the impression that his drawings of Gladstone are not properly caricatures. "Browning's Summers in Brittany" (illustrated by George Wharton Edwards) takes the reader to enchanted ground, and gives him something to think about at the same time.

—The *Revue Encyclopédique Larousse*, which, since it became a weekly, seems inclined to emphasize the last word in its title, has a more or less praiseworthy habit of bringing out now and then a special number of double or triple thickness, devoted entirely to some one subject. These numbers are often of considerable interest, and, under the well-known Larousse limitations, of a certain value. The issue of July 24 is one of these, and is devoted to Belgium, which it regards in many aspects, but chiefly in those that concern the arts. The articles it contains are for the most part, if not entirely, the work of well-known Flemish writers of the present time: M. Maurice Maeterlinck, M. Emile Verhaeren, M. Georges Eckhoud, M. Albert Mockel, M. Camille Lemonnier, M. Edmond Picard. Each of them speaks of what he knows best and likes best, and so their work is of value in itself; but the number also possesses a special interest as giving a sort of bird's-eye view of contemporaneous Flemish literature. One does not often see the work of so many representative writers of a country placed side by side. What one notes first in the present instance is the general air of "Jeunesse"; but Young Belgium is not exactly Young France, though there are indications that the very youngest France is drawing towards it and, more or less to its own advantage, submitting to its influence. To speak particularly of the different articles in the Review would lead us too far. The illustrations in it are to be noted, both for the excellence of some of the process prints, and for the wisdom which has determined the choice of the pictures, old and new, which are represented. There are, besides, many interesting portraits, some from photographs and some from paintings. Among the photographs will be found one of M. Maurice Maeterlinck looking somewhat older than in the usual photographs of him, and one of M. Emile Verhaeren, who seems to have gained the years of youth which Maeterlinck has lost. An admirable portrait of M. Georges Rodenbach and an almost equally admirable drawing of M. Cyriel Buysse are also given. A bibliography of the chief books relating to Belgium closes the number.

—The Lambeth Conference of Bishops of the Anglican communion which has just closed, gave occasion to the Bishop of Oxford of bringing out a second edition of his 'Registrum Sacrum Anglicanum' (Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde). The book is a list of all the bishops that have ever held English sees, and is intended to exhibit the course of episcopal succession in England as it may be gathered from the records and chronicles of the Church. This has been a labor of love on the part of Dr. Stubbs, who has (as he says and as the world knows) naturally that strong instinct for the investigation of continuities and coincidences which leads men to the study of chronology and genealogy for the pleasure of exercise—an instinct that was favored by the circumstances of early home education and local association. His book has been almost exactly fifty years in the making, and the first edition of it appeared about forty years ago. Its authority rests upon original documentary evidence to the almost complete exclusion of any second-hand testimony. In the first edition a tabular arrangement was followed. This has now been given up, which enables the author to exhibit distinctly the principal authorities for the several dates, and particular references to the editions of chronicles and other records, many of which have been printed since 1858. The book is simply indispensable to every student of English ecclesiastical history. One notes with

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interest that Dr. Stubbs finds less new material for the mediæval portion of the work than might have been expected from the research made in the Papal archives since the accession of Leo XIII. It is pretty, too, to observe the summary disposition Dr. Stubbs makes of the lists of British and Welsh bishops anterior to the coming of Augustine, which were so dear to the heart of old-fashioned high churchmen. He sweeps them all into the dust-hole of an appendix, with the remark that this is done in order to clear away at once all questionable legendary matter from the subject. "There is probably some little truth in each of them," he says, "but so much that is simple fabrication that I have thought it better to insert them whole here, with what remarks I have to make on them, than to mix with undoubtedly true records any portion of what stands on so weak a foundation." Both in respect of these lists and, in fact, generally, students who compare, however hastily and slightly, the present volume with such works as Godwin's 'De Presulibus' and Le Neve's 'Fasti,' will note a contrast which, however oft repeated, is still startling, between the historical work of a critical and a non-critical age.

—There has just been published in New York a quaint little volume of Judeo-German poetry from the pen of Morris Rosenfeld, which marks an era in Jewish literature. Heretofore the poetry of the Russian Jews has consisted in the main of folk-songs, accessible in language and sentiment only to those of their own race and country. By the masterly productions of Mr. Rosenfeld, until lately a tailor by trade, a new road has been opened for it, one that leads to universal literature and demands universal recognition. The Jewish Muse sings in the minor key of oppression and suffering; so, too, our author's poems have frequently tears for their subject, and their burden is the unanswered question. The keynote is struck in his "Cemetery Nightingale," who of all places chooses the "Guter Ort" in which to pour out his sweetest songs. His ballads and legends have all a painful charm about them, and even such sentiments as generally cause others pleasant sensations make him smile through tears. The poet's technique is perfect, the melody of his rhythms and word-grouping is very remarkable in a dialect in which Slavic and Hebrew elements seem only to have corrupted its German base. Mr. Rosenfeld is the first one in his language to sing of youth and spring and love. We quote a stanza from his "The Jewish May" (in the German orthography, as far as the dialect permits of it), but one must read a whole poem before coming under the poet's spell:

Wieder nemmt der Frühling mohlen
Mit sein Pinsel—wie er schmiert,
Weren Berger, weren Tholen,
Werd die Erd' mit Grün verziert.
Wieder lacht die Sunn' arunter
Zu der Welt un' macht ihr munter;—
Mit ihr Schmeichel (smile), mit ihr Kuss
Macht sie greet (ready) ihr zum Genuss. . .

What makes the poet's genius the more remarkable is that he was born into a family of humble fishermen, and that he has received no other education than that which familiarizes every Jewish boy in Russia with the language and literature of his religious lore.

MR. LOGAN IN RUSSIA.

In Joyful Russia. By John A. Logan, jr. D. Appleton & Co.

One of the Arabian Nights' Tales relates the mishaps of voyagers who navigated too near the great mountain of lodestone, and suffered shipwreck in consequence. A volume would hardly suffice to narrate the mishaps of the over-bold travellers of modern days who go to pieces in Russia. The latest unfortunate on the list is Mr. John A. Logan, jr. Had he confined himself to a plain statement of what he saw during the coronation time and the remainder of his brief stay, taking due advice, and making careful observations, his book would have been small but valuable. The fragment of it which fulfils those conditions is valuable and, since his style is direct and graphic and his opportunities for seeing a limited part of Russian life were unusually good, interesting. Unfortunately, he has not been content with this, but his ambition "to write a book about Russia" on the ordinary slender foundations has betrayed him into a great deal of "padding," the greater portion of which has been taken from the works of writers who have preceded him. As his own knowledge of the language, life, and conditions was no larger than could reasonably be demanded of an impromptu visitor, the resulting web of ingeniously interwoven quotations (acknowledged and unacknowledged) was, of necessity, put together without any possible criterion, and all the original inaccuracies are incorporated with the natural misconceptions of the writer himself.

It is not usual to make mention of such secondary matters as the illustrations before the text has been duly examined, but in this case it will prove instructive if we reverse the common procedure and say a few words concerning them, because we shall thereby arrive directly at a characteristic feature of the whole work. Nine of the illustrations are extremely misleading, to say the least, though in varying degrees. Taking them in their order, they are as follows: P. 8, the Borovitzky Gate of the Kremlin is wrongly labelled "The Nikolsky Gate"; p. 32, "The Grand Duke Alexander Alexandrovitch" should read "Alexander Mikhailovitch"; and in the fulsome chapter on the reigning Empress, "The Empress Alexandrovna" means simply "The Empress, daughter of Alexander," instead of Alexandra Feodorovna (Alexandra, daughter of Feodor, her proper name); p. 43, "A Peasant of the Better Class" is a stock photograph, made, like the costume therein depicted, to be sold in the shops to confiding strangers, and the costume is not more genuinely peasant than is the woman who wears it; p. 67, "Our Little Servant" is another stock photograph of a Little Russian girl, with a Little Russian, not a Moscow, oven; pp. 111 and 265, "The Emperor's Bedroom" and "A Room in the Empress's Private Suite in the Palace of the Kremlin" are in reality two of the ancient, unused rooms in the old Terem, maintained as specimens of ancient building. The imperial apartments are in a different part of the palace, are entirely modern, and are not shown to every traveller. P. 151, "Georgian and Caucasian costumes" are merely the ordinary Cossack uniform, worn all over the empire by members of the Cossack regiments. P. 232, "Chapel at Petrovski Palace" is, in reality, a famous church at Ostankino, built in 1648, while the Petrovski palace—several miles away—was built in 1840. P. 239, "A Russian Merchant-Koopyets" is another stock photograph of a fashionable coachman in winter attire, as the author would (perhaps) have known had he been in Russia during the winter, whose climate, customs, and so forth, he repeatedly describes as though from personal observation. We may mention, in passing, that the four colored plates entirely fail to give any idea of the true coloring. The moral which the above-mentioned illustrations, with their easily rectified and wholly erroneous inscriptions, preach is, that Mr. Logan was not a careful observer even of what he really saw. The reader can readily judge of the length of his stay from the fact that he had time to write the book in Switzerland before the summer ended. We are able, therefore, to pronounce with considerable certainty as to what he had even the opportunity to observe.

His errors of commission and omission are so numerous that we must content ourselves with summary mention of the majority of them. P. 7, pilgrims do not carry samovars about with them and brew sizzling tea in the streets. P. 9, the corps of the Russian army at the railway stations is the gendarmes' corps. P. 15, Izvostchiks do not have a pillow sewed to the back of their coats; the fashionable men have them applied with artful fixedness, which prevents the amusing disarrangement described. P. 21, the passage concerning the policeman, his house, and habits is copied, unacknowledged, from F. Wishaw's thoroughly delightful 'Out of Doors in Tzarland,' and is erroneous in that work also. The anecdote of sleepers in the streets, recorded with an extraordinary use of the word "should," and mentioned again on p. 177, is unusual, if not incredible. P. 36 contains a passage originally written concerning some experience during a famine by an author not mentioned. Any physician could have informed the author that no class of people can use, as their "staple food," tree-bark and grass, raw or baked, without speedily turning to angels. P. 39, sterlet soup, we are told, "is better than clam chowder, and not altogether unlike it." It is wholly unlike it, if properly made. P. 48, the fine description of the habits of the blackcock and the manner of hunting them is taken from Wishaw's book just cited. P. 59, there is not "an ikon on the wall of every room in every Russian house," for there are stated proper places, not universal, for them. Neither is an ikon, necessarily, "a half-length picture." P. 60, it is a pity that the author did not fill out the quoted passage about the metal garments on the ikons with an explanation, if he found one in his authorities. There is a very rational and easy explanation. P. 61, here, and in nearly every other case where Russian words are used with a knowing effect, they are misspelled almost to the point of being unrecognizable. "Tchudotrormy" represents tchudotvorny; p. 76, "garmouka" for garmonka; p. 130, "Unpenski" for Uspenski; p. 244, "starvst" and "voriadnik" for starost and uriadnik; p. 254, "Shevtcheuko" and Seukovski for Shevtchenko and Senkovski. All these could easily have been avoided, as well as Somonosof for Lomonosoff, p. 260, and "Efunovitch" for Evfimovitch on the same page. P. 95, we find the old familiar fable about Ivan the Terrible putting out the eyes of the architect who built the Cathedral of St. Basil. As a matter of fact, the wooden church which preceded the present one on the same site was built under Ivan, who died long before the present one (the

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one in question) was finished. P. 110, the Emperor and Empress did not spend their three days of religious retirement at the Petrovsky Palace, as the author will remember, but at the Alexandrinsky Palace, several miles away.

Mr. Logan's description of the actual coronation ceremony, which he did not see, is quite good and accurate (as it is taken from a competent authority), with one or two exceptions. The impression conveyed by the introduction of the benedictions and other phrases in Latin is that Latin was the language used in the service; whereas, as always in the Russian Church, it was Old Church Slavic. Moreover, when he asserts (pp. 118, 235, 237) that the Russian Church "acknowledges the Czar as its spiritual chief," he speaks in ignorance of the facts, as he does when he states that the Virgin Mary is "worshipped." If he will refer to the Office for the Reception of Converts into the Orthodox Church, he will find the position of the Church on both those points distinctly and unmistakably set forth; the spiritual Head of the Church is Christ, and it has no earthly head; the Virgin Mother receives homage, but not worship. Neither is it true that "every soldier in the army is a blind idolater, and has learned at his mother's knees and in the village church that the noblest thing he can do is to lay down his life for his ruler, or to spend it in unquestioning service." That doctrine is not preached, and, in the thousands of pages of the Church Service books, it is not once mentioned. However, it sounds well, like many other attempts at fine writing which serve to fill out the requisite number of pages. Equally misleading are other statements in this chapter upon the Church. The Russian Church does not "attach to her priesthood plenary powers of indulgence" (p. 234). Unlike the Roman Catholic Church, she admits of no indulgence. And the Patriarch Nikon was not "banished to the Siberian desert" (p. 235), but to a place less than 200 miles from St. Petersburg's present site. So far is it from the truth that when Russian priests "become widowers they lose their cures and must become monks," that the proof of the contrary can be obtained in New York city. A recent number of the *Russian American Messenger*, the official organ of the Russian Church in America, published in New York, mentioned the need for an assistant in the cathedral at San Francisco, adding: "A widower or monk is preferred"; and a widower is arch-priest over one of the Pennsylvania parishes.

Other extraordinary statements can be found in the chapter, "How We Washed in Russia." On p. 187, the author describes the method of heating by means of "large blocks of wood" placed in an oven in one corner. "When they have become sufficiently heated, the attendant throws over them quantities of cold water sufficient to make as much steam as if a boiler had burst. . . . In order to enhance the steam, bunches of birch twigs are first dipped in the water and then thrust into the oven. During the steaming process, the attendant takes one of these bunches of birch rods and proceeds to beat the bather." It hardly requires an expert to perceive how dangerous and short-lived blocks of wood—even of hard wood—would be for such a use as that described; stones are the proper thing, and probably what the author saw. Peter the Great, very appropriately, used cannon-balls. The birch twigs would hardly enhance the steam to any extent; they are thus treated to prevent the leaves from falling off during the beating process, and to render them soft to the flesh. The "excelsior" here mentioned is merely finely shredded linden bast. Perhaps the most remarkable assertion of all is that contained in the description of the Christmas masquerading and the religious ceremony of "The Blessing of the Waters," at the end of this chapter. This will be interesting news to Russians. It is true that many peasants jump into the stream after it has been blessed, both at the Feast of the Epiphany (in commemoration of Christ's baptism in the Jordan), which is here referred to, and on various other occasions, of less importance, during the year, when the same ceremony takes place for other reasons, and in milder weather. But that it is merely a lavish way of using holy water, instead of a special cleansing process after fancy-dress frolics, may be gathered from the fact that, at this particular "Jordan" Blessing of the Waters, the Church statutes enjoin the priests to drink of the holy water before partaking of food, under certain conditions, and the priests assuredly are not "purging their devout bodies from the uncleanness they had absorbed from indiscreet wearing of heathen-like garments."

The chapter on "Slavic Literature" is charmingly ingenuous. It deals with the whole subject as a freshly discovered and original field of investigation, conveying the impression of profound research in the native tongue and dialects. But how fresh it is to the author himself is shown by his remark preceding copious quotations (acknowledged) from Dr. Georg Brandes, on the Epic Songs or Byliny. "The history of these bilini is so deeply interesting that I venture to dwell upon it, feeling sure that they are unknown to thousands of English and American readers who are fairly familiar with modern Russian fiction." In 1886 'The Epic Songs of Russia,' by Isabel F. Hapgood, with an introduction by the late Prof. Francis J. Child of Harvard College, was published in New York, and became a standard book, familiar not only to thousands of Americans and English, but to many Russians as well. In the absence of reliable authorities from whom he could quote, or the rare knowledge of the subject, which demands long residence and study, as well as acquaintance with the Russian language, history, and other branches, it is not surprising that the chapter on "Slavic Art" should be unsatisfactory, despite its enthusiastic appreciation.

It would not have been worth while to enter into these details had the pretensions of the book been less, and the tone less aggressively authoritative. But, having criticised its shortcomings, we must give due credit to the spirited style, the freshness, and interest of chapters xxii. and xxiii., on Russian Horses, taken from Col. Ismailoff's Chicago Exposition volume; the truth of the comments (p. 18) on the present incapacity for self-government of the Russian masses; page 50, the quality of food in the prisons; page 79, on bathing at home, and, in general, the author's personal experiences; page 88, the disappointing effect of the much-lauded gypsy singers, and the exquisite Russian courtesy which makes a guest feel that he is conferring, as well as receiving, a favor; page 152, on the simple manner of the Emperor and Empress, driving, unattended, and heartily received by their people; p. 153, on the manufacture of terrible stories for foreign consumption.

A Description of the Wordsworth and Coleridge Manuscripts in the Possession of Mr. T. Norton Longman. With three facsimile reproductions. Edited with notes by W. Hale White. Longmans, Green & Co.

This sumptuous book describes four volumes of Wordsworth and Coleridge manuscripts belonging to Mr. T. Norton Longman of the publishing family. The first of these volumes comprises the "copy" for most of volume ii. of the 1800 edition of the 'Lyrical Ballads' and for a part of volume i., together with a number of letters. The second and third are the "copy" for the 1802 edition of the same. The fourth is the manuscript of the 'Poems in Two Volumes,' 1807. A bare statement of the contents of Mr. Longman's manuscripts conveys, however, no idea of their interest. This is biographical as well as literary, for, as the editor justly remarks, even such a detail as "the intermixture of handwritings is remarkable evidence of the intimacy of the relationship between Coleridge, Wordsworth, and Dorothy, and shows how much the 'Lyrical Ballads' of 1800 owed to love and friendship." We shall not attempt an exhaustive notice of a book which every student of Wordsworth or Coleridge will wish to possess, or at least to examine, but shall rest content with mentioning some of the interesting things which it contains.

Among these is a holograph letter from Wordsworth to "Mr. Davy, Superintendent of the Pneumatic Institution, Bristol" (afterwards the celebrated Sir Humphry Davy), begging him "to look over the enclosed poems and correct anything he finds amiss in the punctuation"—"a business," continues Wordsworth, "in which I am ashamed to say I am no adept." With this letter were enclosed "Hartleap Well," "There was a Boy," "Ellen Irwin," and part of "The Brothers."

Interesting, also, is the sheet, in Dorothy Wordsworth's hand, containing the Notes to the first volume of the 'Lyrical Ballads.' This includes Wordsworth's strangely banal criticism of "The Ancient Mariner"—a note which was dropped after 1800. Curiously enough, there is little reason to doubt that these unappreciative remarks allowed the poem merits quite as great as Coleridge himself was disposed to claim for it.

Of very great interest is the sixteenth sheet in the first manuscript volume. This sheet, which is entirely in Coleridge's hand, contains the whole of "Love," with various corrections. Coleridge has deleted one whole stanza, much to the improvement of the poem, though the verses are beautiful in themselves. The sheet also contains more than seventy alterations for "The Ancient Mariner." The felicity of some of these changes is hardly surpassed by Milton's amazing revision of his "Lycidas." It is in this manuscript, for instance, that

> "Are those *her* naked ribs, which fleck'd
> The sun that did behind them peer?"

is first changed to

> "Are those *her* ribs thro' which the sun
> Did peer, as thro' a grate?"

And again, the halting stanza,

> "Since then at an uncertain hour,

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Now oftimes and now fewer,
That anguish comes and makes me tell
My ghastly aventure,"

is transmuted into

"Since then at an uncertain hour
That agony returns;
And till my ghastly tale is told
This heart within me burns."

The copy for the 1802 edition of the 'Lyrical Ballads' contains two highly interesting cancelled passages, now printed for the first time. Both are inportant for the history of Wordsworth's critical opinions, and the first will repay study.

Mr. Longman's last volume contains some textual variations of moment, all of which are registered by Mr. White. "The Tinker" and lines "On Seeing some Tourists of the Lakes pass by reading" have never before been printed.

Nothing but praise is due to Mr. Hale White for his part in this book. His account of the material is clear, and his editorial work seems to have been performed with scrupulous accuracy. The facsimile reproductions are "The Brothers" (in part), the letter to Mr. Davy, Coleridge's "Love," and a part of the "Ode on Immortality." They are beautifully executed. In closing this summary notice it is our painful duty to quote, for our readers' benefit, two sentences from the preface, which tell their own story: "Professor Knight, in his last edition of Wordsworth's Poems, has inserted some of the various readings found in the [Longman] MSS. He has not, however, in all cases transcribed them correctly, nor is the transcription complete."

Book and Heart: Essays on Literature and Life. By Thomas Wentworth Higginson. Harper & Bros. 1897.

The fanciful title taken by Mr. Higginson for his collection of essays (reprinted, in part, from reviews and newspapers) is explained on the title-page by a quotation from the New England Primer, and still further elucidated by the table of contents. With literature and life the essayist concerns himself, and there is a great deal of pleasant talk about both in his pages. We ourselves like the literary essays best, for those which deal with life are occasionally suggestive of the pulpit; but if called upon to defend our preference, we doubt very much whether we have any better reason than a reprehensible aversion to the pulpit "tone," as one might shy at the medical or legal, on occasion. Mr. Higginson's views of life cannot be called those of a man of the world—they are rather those of a recluse and scholar, who has had a good deal to do with life without ever having fallen under the thraldom of what is known as society. Yet Swelldom, as existent in Newport, is not unknown to him; and in a very good essay on the "Problem of Drudgery," he naïvely confesses that his own most vivid memory of social drudgery goes back to an evening at the chief club in that town, where three or four fashionable men debated for two hours the question of servants' liveries. Though men come and go, this goes on for ever, for fashionable men are really interested in servants' liveries, and people, fashionable or unfashionable, talk about what interests them. After all, which is the worst, that the vapid should talk about what interests vapidity, or that, as in former days, they should affect an interest in literary things, to such as they really incomprehensible? But this is beside the point, which is that life means drudgery for all, and that the secret of happiness is congenial work. Hence literature and art stand high among pursuits (Mr. Higginson cautiously limits the statement by adding "to those who love them"), because their very drudgery is mostly a pleasure.

Mr. Higginson is an accomplished literary critic, and has also, what many critics have not, a gift for reproducing personal impressions, as in the account of "Lowell's Closing Years in Cambridge" in this volume. Essays like these are not dogmatic or polemic; they are rather the friendly talk of a thoughtful man, with whom we may not always agree, but whose suggestions we may take or leave. One point, however, we must dispute. The author declares (p. 133) that it is becoming more and more "absurd" to classify men and women "by occupation instead of character." How is this to be reconciled with the classification of literature and art at the top of all? A world in which people are classified by merit, virtue, intellect, and character is an old and beautiful ideal, but there is nothing absurd in other classifications; and visible external differences, such as rank, clothes, money, power, manners, and occupations, are instinctively fastened upon as among the necessary tests applied by everybody. No kind of labor can be degrading, our author thinks, and we say so, too; but that does not prove that manual labor is ennobling, or prevent the inference, as matters stand, that it would be absurd to put Mr. Higginson and a hod-carrier in the same social class. We dislike the word "class," because it recalls caste, but without classes, according to some test, every logician must admit that there can be no classification, and we see no reason to believe that a classification by merit only could ever be of more than limited application. The fact is, that the dream is of a unitary system of classification in a non-unitary world.

Essays and Addresses. By Sir J. Russell Reynolds, Bart., F. R. S., M.D. Lond. etc., etc. Macmillan. Pp. xxiv, 307.

The friends of Dr. Russell Reynolds have built for him the best of monuments in a volume of his occasional addresses. His face in the frontispiece—one of those in which Charles Lamb says the heavenly dove sits visibly brooding—is in keeping with his discourses. The idea pervading all his utterances—not obtrusively, but like a sweet and subtle aroma—is that materialistic views not only are false in fact, but tend to inhuman and unsuccessful medical treatment.

His life was that of an ideal doctor. During the whole of it, from his twenty-fourth year, he dwelt in the same London house, succeeding another doctor there. All that time (1852-1896) he was busy in metropolitan colleges, hospitals, or practice. Seldom was he beyond hearing of Bow Bells. When sixty years old he had a glimpse of the Alps, and about the same time made one address in Bristol and another in Bolton. No wonder that these excursions were his only claims to membership in the Travellers' Club, for he held that frequent rides, even in an easy-going, first-class English coach, must generate diseases. "Prominent among these," he remarks, "are insomnia, defective memory," etc. "The jar of frequently-stopping suburban trains is seriously damaging, even when a busy man is concussed into a sort of coma by six to seven minutes of the train" (p. 262).

Dr. Reynolds, in 1884, delivering the Harveian oration before the Royal College, of which he died President, was glad to recall the fact that his grandfather in 1776 had enjoyed the same honor. This oration was the most elaborate of the grandson's productions; nor can we easily find so good a tribute to Harvey, not only as discovering —that is, proving—the circulation of the blood, but as filled with a philosophical spirit of prophecy, thanks to which he anticipated in idea many nineteenth-century revelations. One at least of the articles in this memorial volume has been long known in America, since it formed the introduction to 'A System of Medicine,' which Dr. Reynolds edited in 1866. Several other articles, which served well for local and temporary ends, and which personal friends would not willingly let die, cannot be of much interest to the general or even medical public. Dr. Reynolds was hospitable to new ideas. He describes with gusto the first trial at an amputation by a sceptic of "the Yankee dodge for making men insensible," as the use of ether for an anæsthetic was called, and its triumphant success (p. 274). His last address was entitled "The Organized Progress of Medicine." He loved to contrast the harmonious compromises in his latter days with his youth, when a triangular and internecine fight was waging between antiphlogistics; "who would bleed every one, whether he had pneumonia, apoplexy, a compound fracture, or a fit"; expectants, who would do nothing for a patient but watch him as the Levite did the Jew who had been left half dead by thieves; and those whose therapeutics were based on brandy. He died happy in the discoveries he had seen "as to the pituitary body, the thyroid gland, and the suprarenal capsules, as well as regarding the metabolic properties of the liver and the spleen" (p. 296), and in faith that, standing on the threshold of still greater revelations, he saw through the portal a larger knowledge as to the nutrition of all organs, of the way in which this is brought about, and of the interdependence of all tissues.

South and East Africa. By C. P. Lucas. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

It is a real pleasure to read on a timely and difficult subject a book as well written as this one. Of its two parts, which make up the fourth volume of Mr. Lucas's 'Historical Geography of the British Colonies,' the first is purely historical. As he says in beginning:

"The story of South Africa is unique in the chronicles of European colonization. For a century and a half it is the barren record of a landmark—the Cape. For another century and a half it is little more than the story of a port of call, round which a small settlement gathered. It is now the unfinished tale of a wide dominion.

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the home and abiding-place of a large white population."

In less than three hundred and fifty short pages the author gives us an excellent account of the three periods without ever letting our interest flag. If it is easy enough to write dispassionately of earlier events, the times of Dutch dominion, the task becomes increasingly delicate for each decade of the present century. Almost at every page the writer has to dwell upon subjects that have provoked great difference of opinion and aroused bitter feeling; some of them are burning questions at the present day. As between the whites and the blacks, the missionaries and the settlers, the colonists and the home Government, the Boers and the English, Mr. Lucas remains calm and judicial, striving to be fair to both parties, and, we believe, succeeding. Naturally the troubles of the last two years are touched upon but lightly. We know of no other book which contains such an admirable short account of South African history, clear and impartial, well proportioned, well thought out, and well expressed.

The second part, which is chiefly geography, being more technical, will be of less interest to the general reader: indeed, the short chapters, excellent in themselves, are hardly longer than encyclopædia articles. The most important of them, the one on British East Africa, is particularly attractive, although, with its acompanying map, it is open to question on political grounds. Here, as in several other regions of the world, the last word in the settling of boundaries between the French and English has not yet been heard—a fact which the latter are trying to ignore. Still, we do not wish to end with a criticism our remarks on so satisfactory a work, but prefer instead to call attention to the eleven little maps that form a useful supplement to the text.

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